

Parallel History:

AN OUTLINE

OF THE

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY
OF THE WORLD,

CONTEMPORANEOUSLY ARRANGED.

BY

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The Second Edition.

CONTAINING MODERN HISTORY, FROM THE OUTBREAK OF
THE FRENCH REVOLUTION TO THE PRESENT DAY.

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1843.

HOC ILLUD EST PRÆCIPUE IN COGNITIONE RERUM SALUBRE AC FRUGIFERUM,—OMNIS TE EXEMPLI DOCUMENTA IN ILLUSTRIS POSITA MONUMENTO INTUERI; INDE TIBI, TUÆQUE REIPUBLICÆ, QUOD IMITERE, CAPIAS; INDE FÆDUM INCEPTU, FÆDUM EXITU, QUOD VITES.—LIVIES.

ME QUIDEM IPSÆ ILLÆ NOSTRÆ ATHENÆ NON TAM OPERIBUS MAGNIFICIS EXQUISITISQUE ANTIQVORVM ARTIBVS DELECTANT, QUAM RECORDATIONE SUMMORVM VIRORVM, VBI QVISQVE HABITARE, VBI SEDERE, VBI DISPUTARE SIT SOLITVS.—CICERO.

WHO WRITES A HISTORY, HIS PRINCIPAL AIM SHOULD BE TRUTH, AND TO RELATE ESPECIALLY THE EXTRAORDINARIES BOTH OF GOOD AND ILL: OF GOOD, THAT MEN, TAKEN WITH THE HONOUR DONE THEM IN STORY, MAY BE ENCOURAGED TO PERFORM THE LIKE; OF ILL, THAT WHEN MEN SEE THE INFAMY THAT THEY ARE BRANDED WITH, THEY MAY LEAP FROM ALL THAT SHOULD MAKE THEM SO STIGMATIZED.—OWEN FELLITHAM.

POSTSCRIPT.

HAVING brought down his sketch of History from the earliest period to the present day, the Author would, in conclusion, exhort the Reader to remember what he said in his Preface, that ‘the opinions offered throughout on politics and religious faith, are to be regarded, not as resulting from a wish to dogmatise, but from a sincere desire to instil sober sentiments into the youthful mind.’ The doctrines he has, imperfectly enough, laboured to uphold, are those wherein himself was nurtured; and if only entitled to the name of *prejudices* on that account, he must be allowed to designate them *principles*, now that his reason and judgment have, in maturer years, forced upon his mind a conviction of their truth. If, in the notion of some, or even of many, they should be thought a little antiquated and out of fashion, that he must lament; but he must be permitted to assert boldly, that the man who resolves to act closely up to them, and accomplishes his resolve, will, with the blessing of God, find himself both advanced in virtue, and full of the hope of the humble Christian:

‘percat mea musa, dolosum
Si quando ornaret vitium, aut cecinisse reenset
Virtutemque, artemque, et quicquid carmine dignum.’

No opinion that the Author has ventured to offer in reprobation, has been directed against the person, but against the act. We have no right, to judge men; but regarding men’s positive deeds and their tendency, it is permitted us to deliver our sentiments. The matter of History demands of the narrator the illustration of his private judgment as he proceeds; and every one is aware how almost impossible it is to perform this duty so as to give offence to no party. It was our own king Charles the Second, who registered his sense of the Historian’s difficulty in this particular. ‘What work are you upon?’ said His Majesty to Gregorio Leti, then at his court. ‘Il Teatro Britannico, sire, an historical one of your court,’ replied the author. ‘How

can you,' rejoined king Charles. 'write history, and not give offence somewhere?' 'That, sire,' answered Gregorio, 'not even Solomon could have done.' 'Then,' rejoined his majesty, with his usual quickness of repartee, 'be as wise as Solomon, and write only proverbs.' To the utmost of his power the Author has laboured to avoid giving offence, without obeying the royal monition; but he will not lose sight of his principles to apologise for having denounced, when required so to do, the *characters* of the quack, the demagogue, the purse-proud and therefore viciously-ignorant man, the confounder of principles, the unjust doer, the scorner of authority in church or state, or the infidel. He has given due praise to whig good intentions and achievements, while showing a preference for the greater security and conformity to the dicta of religion and reason of tory institutions: and when supporting the orthodox religious sentiments of our forefathers by condemning dissent, he has felt no animosity towards a single individual, no want of charity for the really pious professor, be his notions of what is required of the Christian ever so opposed in character to his own. For one especial deviation from propriety, however, he must give some explanation. He has expressed his regret, and more than his regret, that a want of reverence for things holy is a crying sin of this day. There can be but one opinion respecting the practice of discussing subjects which especially appertain to the pulpit, in the secular works of the public; but so gross has been of late the interference of even the common newspaper prints in polemical controversy, that it appeared to the Author a point of duty to relate, as clearly as his epitome of History would permit, the occurrences which have, during a long course of years, led to the recent movements in ecclesiastical matters. Had not his mind been turned to divinity studies for higher purposes than such an elucidation, he should not have dared to enter upon so sacred a ground. As respects the author's desire to uphold the church of England, it may be alleged that the opinions of a *man* to that effect can least of all be charged as *interested*, according to the usual acceptation of the term.

In conclusion, the Author has but to intreat the patience and favour of the Historical Inquirer, while perusing a work for which he has had no model, and which he undertook solely because some such compendium, arranged in the order of time, on the contemporaneous plan, had long been demanded, and that in vain, by the public.

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MODERN HISTORY.

PERIOD THE FIFTEENTH.

FROM THE OUTBREAK OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION
TO ITS CLOSE.

1789 TO 1815—26 YEARS.

GEORGE III., KING OF ENGLAND.

1760 TO 1820—60 YEARS.

PART II.—1789 TO 1815—26 YEARS.

POLITICAL HISTORY CONTINUED.—It was our remark, in concluding the previous volume, that a new era had commenced for Europe when the principles of the French Revolution had found means to develop themselves. It is almost needless to explain that the change contended for by the leaders of the great movement, was the taking out of the hands of kings and nobles a sufficient share of the power and privileges they had for ages enjoyed, to bestow it upon the third estate, that is, the people. The subsequent grant of constitutions to various continental states, and the Reform-bill of our own country, are some of the necessary consequences of the working of the principles of the French Revolution. Those causes of mutation, it must be borne in mind, have not yet ceased to operate, and will still continue to work ; and it is for the wisdom of European sovereigns and their advisers, to see that proper checks are put from time to time upon the progress of, and boundaries set to the issues of, what is called radical reform, or, in other words, that a watch be kept upon the probable attempts that will, in time, be every where made to give an undue preponderance to democratic power.

France had, long before the year 1789, been bordering on anarchy. A series of wars, and a careless expenditure of the public revenue, had drained the exchequer of the nation ; insomuch that even the skill of the best financiers could devise no means of replenishing its coffers. Add to this, much umbrage had been taken at the engrossing of all patronage, and almost of all national profits, by the nobles on the one hand, and by a centralizing

system of the government on the other ; and these circumstances combined, and not any profligacy of the French court, or of the higher ranks of people (a charge which historians have very unauthorizedly brought against them), enabled the spread of books, which directed men to claim their rights, and overthrow the tyranny of kings, to stir the minds of a starving populace (no longer kept under due restraint by the powerful influence of the Jesuits) to the most atrocious deeds of violence. When, accordingly, a national bankruptcy was virtually announced by the crown ministers, 1789, the public indignation knew no bounds. By the advice of Necker, and Calonne, the comptroller-general, king Louis convoked the ancient assembly of the States-general, which, meeting in one body, clergy, nobles, and commons, and assuming the title of *The National Assembly*, commenced a total change in the constitution. Feudal privileges were abolished ; local divisions set aside ; monastic institutions suppressed ; the country distributed into departments instead of provinces, to be uniformly taxed ; and the English trial by jury substituted for the administration of justice by the old provincial parliaments. The count d'Artois (afterwards Charles X.), the prince of Condé, and others of the royal family, emigrated, and aggravated thereby the jealousy of the people. A furious mob instantly assailed the state-prison of the Bastille, and levelled it with the ground ; and a national guard being formed, the notorious La Fayette was put at its head.

England had watched these transactions with anxiety ; though there were many who saw nothing but good in the impending clouds, and who thought that the sun of liberty would in a short period shine forth in France with renewed lustre. The continental sovereigns, however, were inclined to regard affairs in the gloomiest light, and perhaps accelerated the mischief by the promptitude with which they issued their threats against the authors of the rebellion : for no sooner had the duke of Brunswick's manifesto been published, 1792, than all power in France was given into the hands of the Jacobins, who, storming the king's palace, massacred his guards, made himself and family close prisoners, and abolished royalty. Before the people had time to understand the full nature of these atrocious deeds, the unhappy king was brought to trial, and summarily decapitated, 1793.

During the period that France was thus distracted, the arms of England in the East Indies had been especially successful. Tippu Sahib, the son of Hyder Ali, subdued by lord Cornwallis, was forced to buy a peace, 1792, by the cession of a large portion of his dominions, and the payment of an enormous sum ; for the performance of which his sons were given as hostages. But the ferocious regicides of France did not long allow serenity to the English : they declared war against the king of Great Britain, and the Stadtholder, 1793, intimating, by this artful naming of two sovereigns without their subjects, that the people of these countries had an interest distinct from their respective rulers. It was, in fact, a war against *kings*. Almost at the instant of the declaration of hostilities, a general paralysis appeared to seize the British nation ; and the number of bankruptcies exceeded all that had ever happened in the most calamitous times. Such was the distress, that each man looked upon his neighbour with suspicion ; those possessed of property knew not where to deposit it, while those who suffered pecuniary distress seemed at a loss whither to look for relief. At length Mr. Pitt suggested that 5,000,000*l.* should be issued in exchequer-bills, as a loan to such as might be able to give security for the sums advanced ; and this timely relief probably averted the nation's insolvency. In the midst of these calamities, the duke of York was sent to join the allies in their attack upon the French Jacobins ; but the latter, in two campaigns, wholly defeated them. The fortified harbour of Toulon, which had been surrendered to the Eng-

lish on the outbreak of the Revolution, was wrested from them, 1794, by Napoleon Buonaparte, who for the first time appeared on a scene, wherein he was afterwards to play so conspicuous a part. The French fleet, however, was dispersed by lord Howe, in the Mediterranean, June 1st, and many of the colonies of France were captured; but England saw the parties who had entered with her so spiritedly into the war, gradually retire from the cause, until she was left alone to struggle with the enemies of order. The grand duke of Tuscany set the example of making a peace with France, 1795, and was followed by Spain, the Swiss, Sweden, and Holland; the latter of which, having expelled the Stadtholder, declared itself a republic. The French, therefore, were free to pursue their career; and under the direction of Buonaparte, now become their general-in-chief, their armies soon drove the Austrians from Italy. England kept them in check on the seas, but at such an enormous expenditure of money, that in 1797 the bank became unable to supply the waste; while two mutinies broke out among the sailors, one at Spithead, and the other at the Nore, the latter of which was not quelled without bloodshed, and the execution of the ringleaders. At length, by 1798, Austria was forced into a treaty with the enemy; when the victorious Buonaparte, after seizing Malta, invaded Egypt, and was only kept from penetrating to our Indian possessions by the watchful eye of Nelson.

Buonaparte was soon after this elected consul, at Paris, 1799; and Russia, which had lately agreed to oppose the French, became neutral. Austria again commenced war, but ~~was~~ again forced into a treaty; and an armed neutrality, which had been formed by the northern powers during the American war, with the feigned purpose of protecting the trade of neutral vessels, but in reality to harass the British navy, was entered into again by Russia, Sweden, and Denmark. Nelson almost annihilated the lines of the Danish defence, and would have executed summary punishment on all concerned in the disgraceful confederacy, had not some of his ships run aground. This was in 1801; when the succession of Alexander I. to the Russian throne caused British rights to be better respected by the northern governments. The French being at this juncture expelled from Egypt by the English under Abercrombie, nothing but the total destruction of Great Britain would satisfy the councils of the French consul. He was soon, however, convinced how difficult a task it would be to evade the ever watchful Nelson; and satisfied of the superiority of England by sea, the attempt to invade our shores was abandoned, after a vast display along the whole north coast of France, of vessels ready to transport troops across the channel. Both countries seemed at this moment inclined to peace; and Mr. Addington succeeding Mr. Pitt as premier 1801, a treaty was entered into between France and England at Amiens, March 27, 1802.

From the period when this peace was signed, jealousies and discontents daily arose in both countries, and threatened to produce fresh hostilities. It was clear to the English that the consul of France meditated universal domination: Piedmont had been added to France, Switzerland had been invaded, and the whole of Italy, with the exception of Tuscany, was known to be, by various stratagems, in the interests of the French cabinet. Buonaparte, on the other hand, soon publicly spoke of the retention of Malta by England, in opposition to the late treaty, observing that it ought to have been restored to the knights from whom he had taken it; he also complained of the libels against him in the English papers, which he believed to be sanctioned by the government. These mutual bickerings soon produced more angry demonstrations; and the consul, during an audience granted to lord Whitworth, the English ambassador, so grievously insulted him, that his lord-

ship returned to England, and war was proclaimed, May 1803. Buonaparte instantly overran Hanover, and compelled Prussia to close its ports against the English: while the English blockaded the mouths of such rivers as excluded the British traders, and took many French merchant-ships. The consul hereupon detained all English persons who happened at the moment to be in France, as prisoners of state; and again vainly threatened to descend with an overpowering force upon Britain.

Meanwhile, in July, 1803, an ill-concerted insurrection took place in Dublin, and lord chief justice Kilwarden and several others were cruelly assassinated. It was soon suppressed, the ringleaders secured, and Mr. Robert Emmet, a young man of high connexions, the chief one, was executed for treason. During the same year, lord Wellesley, the governor-general of India, found it necessary to engage in war with three of the native princes; his brother, general Wellesley, obtained the signal victory of Assaye in the central part; and lord Lake was equally successful in the north of Hindustan. A severe but brief illness again attacked the king, 1804, in which year Mr. Addington retired, and Mr. Pitt returned to office, determined on curbing, if he could do no more, the ambitious designs of Buonaparte; a course which was fully justified by the unprincipled murder of the duc d'Enghien. Immediately after the perpetration of this crime, Napoleon Buonaparte had been declared emperor of the French, and king of Italy, May 18, 1804; and Spain, anxious to conciliate the man whose very name appeared to lead his soldiers to victory, entered into a treaty with him. Without a declaration of war, the British ministry gave orders for seizing the Spanish treasure-ships as they returned from South America, and two were taken; Nelson then pursued the combined French and Spanish fleets to the West Indies, and back again to Europe; and on the coast of Spain, at length, 1805, brought them, by astonishing perseverance, into action. Off cape Trafalgar, October 21, a terrible engagement ensued, and the combined hostile fleets were totally annihilated; insomuch that, to this day, neither France nor Spain has ever been able to produce on the seas a force equal to that which they then respectively possessed. The brave Nelson, however, fell at the moment of victory; and when too late, the nation, as one man, lamented the fate of a commander, whose services had never been, when they ought to have been, sufficiently estimated.

So terrible a defeat spurred Napoleon to still greater efforts; and the victory of Austerlitz, December 2, 1805, compelled the Austrian emperor to submit to any terms he dictated. One of the conqueror's arrangements was to diminish the Austrian power by erecting Bavaria and Wurttemberg into kingdoms, which he effected. It was in 1806 that Mr. Pitt, grievously affected by the impeachment of his colleague, lord Melville, died. Mr. Fox and lord Grenville formed a new ministry, and abolished the slave trade; but the former of the two, who had been long the political rival of Mr. Pitt, died in the same year with him. Indeed the country was singularly bereaved of important characters during this one year; for in eleven months Nelson and Cornwallis, her most victorious commanders by sea and land, and Pitt, lord Thurlow, and Fox, her most eloquent and able legislators, paid the debt of nature. It was now that the king of Prussia, Frederick IV., in a moment of chivalrous enthusiasm, thought to crush Napoleon single-handed; but one campaign decided the fate of the war. At Auerstadt, near Jena, October 14, 1806, the Prussian cause was wholly ruined; and the king, stripped of half his dominions, implored assistance from the Russians, who suffered a total defeat in his defence at Friedland, and made a treaty with the emperor at Tilsit, June 25, 1807. Buonaparte then, by his celebrated Berlin decrees, closed all the most important continental ports

against the manufactures of England ; whereupon the latter power hurried off an expedition to Denmark, and seized the fleet of that country, which it was well known that Napoleon intended to employ. The British arms were not so successful in other parts : Buenos Ayres, which had been taken by sir Home Popham, was recovered by the inhabitants, and an armament sent out thither under general Whitelocke, failed signally and disgracefully, July 5, 1807. The general allowed himself to be surrounded by the enemy, when common foresight might have prevented such a disaster ; and he was obliged, after losing a great many of his men, to agree to retire from the province. He was subsequently tried by court-martial for his misconduct, and dismissed the service. Various attempts on the part of the British to aid the Turks and Swedes, and keep them at least neutral, failed at the same unfortunate juncture.

It had been the policy of Mr. Fox to attempt fresh negotiations with France, a course which was pursued by the remnant of his cabinet under his colleague lord Grenville. But when catholic emancipation was brought forward in a new parliament, 1807, the public dislike of the ministry was shown in the most marked manner ; and the king, equally alarmed, was glad to supplant it by the remnant of Mr. Pitt's tory administration, and even to call a new parliament, though the period that had elapsed from the assembling of the former one was but six months. The new ministry, at the head of which was Mr. Perceval, became wholly engrossed in the affairs of Spain and Portugal, 1808. The regent of Portugal had fled to his colony of Brazil, and the French had taken possession of Lisbon : Spain, under the weak Charles IV., was, by the wasteful and unprincipled policy of Godoy, prince of the peace, in a state of revolution, so that the king gave up his crown to his son Ferdinand VII., March 19 : Napoleon was meanwhile devising how best he might add the whole peninsula to France. In a short space of time the Spanish family was invited by the latter to meet him at Bayonne, just within the pale of France ; and its members were there severally compelled to abdicate their claims upon Spain, whose crown the emperor had resolved to bestow on his own brother Joseph. This treacherous proceeding caused a general rising both of Spaniards and Portuguese ; and at Madrid, to strike terror into the insurgents, a fearful massacre ensued, by order of the French general Murat. Portugal was alone kept down by a like severity ; but Cadiz was secured by the British fleet ; the French army under Dupont, 15,000 strong, was compelled to surrender to the patriot Castanos ; and a Spanish force, employed by Napoleon in Germany, revolted on hearing of the usage of the sovereign, and was conveyed by a British squadron to the peninsula.

It was on the 1st of August, 1808, that sir Arthur Wellesley, with the British troops, landed in Portugal : his splendid career will be found briefly sketched in the account of the Peninsular War. To create a diversion in favour of Austria, again at war with Napoleon, the English sent an expedition to subdue the island of Walcheren, on the coast of Holland, 1809 ; but it ended disastrously. For after the island and fortress of Flushing had been taken, disease seized the troops, and an immense sacrifice of life ensued. By 1811 great progress had been made by the British general, now lord Wellington, towards the expulsion of the enemy from the peninsula : but the French, as they retreated from the land where their hopes had been baffled and their pride tamed, were guilty of crimes which deserve the unqualified reprobation of posterity. Every offence to which lust and rapine could prompt an unprincipled soldiery, was committed with impunity : the claims neither of sex nor age afforded protection from murderous outrage :

and mangled corpses and smoking ruins marked the track by which those ruffian warriors retrograded.

Meantime the war between England and France, having, during the first part of 1808, no place of combat, necessarily languished, if we except the trifling display of hostilities in the southern extremity of the kingdom of Naples. The English had still possession of Reggio on the continent, and of the rocky isle of Scylla; and both those places fell to the overpowering force of the French in that quarter. Our operations at sea in that year were wholly confined to a long and unsuccessful search after a French squadron, which had escaped in January from Rochefort; and after the ocean about the West Indies, and the whole coasts of North and South America, had been swept by Sir Richard Strachan and admiral Duckworth, the enemy's ships were found safely harboured at Toulon. The fact, however trifling, of a few ships having kept the sea so long, undiscovered by the British fleets, formed a fine subject for the declamatory triumph of the French; nor was the object of their cruise ever clearly ascertained.

In 1809 the chief matters of interest were the trial of the duke of York, the annihilation of the pope's power by Buonaparte, the battles of Corunna and Talavera in Spain, and the unfortunate expedition to the Scheld, which failed, as before mentioned, in its design, through the pestilential effects of the air around Flushing. A jubilee to commemorate the king's entrance upon the fiftieth year of his reign was celebrated with the utmost display of loyalty and affection in October, and closed the main events of the year.

In 1810 the islands of Bourbon and France were captured by the English from France, as also was Guadaloupe; and in 1811 the most important matter was the debate respecting the powers which ought to be vested in the prince of Wales, on being appointed Regent, on occasion of the return of his parent's malady. But in 1812 the prince had full powers given him; and upon the assassination of the prime minister, Mr. Perceval, in the same year, lord Liverpool was appointed his successor. Just as this change was taking place, Napoleon commenced a war with Russia, which, though attended with success in the onset, ultimately proved the ruin of this soldier of fortune. The French having advanced, in spite of every resistance, to Moscow, the Russians set fire to their city; the invaders were forced to retreat; the severity of a northern winter succeeded; and by thousands the invaders perished, as they attempted a return to their native soil. The cause of Buonaparte in other parts was equally on the decline: in Spain, king Joseph attacked lord Wellington at Vittoria, 1813, and was so completely beaten, that he fled with the remnant of his army into France, and thus evacuated the peninsula: while Prussia, Sweden, and Austria united against the discomfited emperor, and obtained a decisive victory at Leipsic. The retreat of the defeated troops of Napoleon from Germany was most calamitous; and they had no sooner crossed the Rhine, than the allied armies followed, and penetrated at once into the heart of France, 1814. Just as lord Wellington had gained a complete victory over marshal Soult at Toulouse, he was informed of Napoleon's abdication, and that consequently the war he had conducted with such consummate prudence was at an end. His lordship soon after joined the emperor of Russia and king of Prussia at Paris; Buonaparte was removed to the little isle of Elba, on the coast of Italy, with sovereign power; and Louis XVIII. was recalled from exile to ascend the throne of his ancestors.

But a year had scarcely elapsed, when all Europe was once more put in agitation, on hearing that Napoleon had landed again upon those inviting shores which were ever in his view. A congress of ambassadors from the

leading powers was assembled at Vienna at the moment of this event, to settle the peace of Europe; and it was now compelled to devise the readiest means of meeting an evil so strangely unapprehended. The issue was the important battle of Waterloo, 1815, which closed with the surrender of the disturber of nations, and his exile to St. Helena. Louis XVIII. was restored without opposition; a few of Napoleon's most zealous partisans, of whom the chief were marshal Ney and colonel Labedoyere, suffered the penalties of treason, while the greater part of the delinquents escaped with impunity; the wars which had so long distracted Europe, were at length fairly terminated; and a peace, which promised, from the exhausted state of all the nations concerned, to be one of considerable duration, was forthwith and most happily established.

EVENTS.

ORIGIN OF THE JACOBINS, 1789.—

The first plotters against social order in France held their secret conclaves at a Dominican convent in Paris; and as the Dominicans, or black friars, were usually called Jacobins, from the celebrity gained to their order by the regularity and beneficence of the Dominican monastery of the Rue de St. Jacques (S. Jacobus), established in the 13th century, the usurpers of one of the houses of those worthy brothers obtained, in derision, the same appellation. The revolutionary club had originally met at Versailles; but in 1789, when the strength of the popular party had increased, it removed to the Dominican house, at that time in the Rue St. Honoré. The faction exercised a great influence on the events of the revolution; and in 1790, all the men of violent principles in France were its associates. A schism, however, as is usual in such unrighteous compacts, soon sent off Danton, Marat, and other like scoundrels, to form a worse league at the suppressed convent of the Cordeliers, or Franciscan friars; for it was the grand object of the enemies of order to show their triumph over religion, by converting the places hitherto devoted to it, into temples of sedition. The antagonist faction was, by a similar antiphrasis, styled that of The Cordeliers: and the heroes who composed it openly advocated massacre, proscription, and confiscation, as the means of establishing the sovereignty of the people. In 1791 the Cordeliers reunited with the Jacobin

club, from which they took care to expel every man who would not swear to cut throats, or waylay, or in some way destroy, the foes of the injured populace. The attack on the Tuileries in August 1792, the massacres of the following September, the abrogation of royalty, in a word, all the atrocities of the 'reign of terror,' originated with this club. After the death of Robespierre, the Jacobins gradually declined in power; and, when Buonaparte had assumed consular authority, they were never importantly heard of more.

THE CHOUAN LOYALISTS, 1789.—

When the French revolution broke out, the western provinces of Bretagne and Poitou, but especially that part of the latter designated La Vendée, displayed a firm resolution to support the cause of the throne; a disposition which had, on former occasions of hazard to the monarchy, been in the same manner evinced. An army was soon raised in La Vendée; and as it was agreed that the pride of birth should be kept in strict subservience to the sentiments of loyalty, its first commander-in-chief was a peasant named Cathelineau, who had been put in nomination by the marquis de Lescure. Henri de Larochejaquelein, a young noble, and the marquis de Bonchamps, were subsequently in high command, and lost their lives in the cause; and, as observed by a writer in the 'Quarterly Review,' 'history, ancient and modern, might be ransacked without finding parallels to the numerous in-

stances of high daring, patient suffering, and cheerful self-sacrifice' recorded of the loyalists engaged in this fruitless struggle to prop a throne, long before thoroughly undermined by the enemies of kings and of religion. Every class of persons in the two provinces named, joined fearlessly in the cause; and while from ten to twelve women regularly enrolled themselves in the ranks, several boys, the sons of Bretagne nobles, did duty as aides-de-camp or officers. The chevalier de Mondyon, for instance, a lad of fourteen, was stationed on one occasion near a tall officer, who complained of being wounded, and was about to retire. 'I don't see that you are,' said de Mondyon, 'and your retiring will only discourage the men; besides, if you do attempt to go, I will shoot you through the head.' The remonstrance was effectual. The Vendéan peasants rarely omitted saying their prayers before engaging in battle; and most of them made the sign of the cross each time they fired. The fervour of the religious sentiment was well exemplified at the battle of Fontenai:—'Before the attack,' writes Madame de Larochejaquelein, 'the soldiers received absolution. The generals then said to them, Now, friends, we have no powder: we must take these cannon with clubs. We must recover 'Marie Jeanne' [a 12-pounder of fine workmanship, that had been taken by the republicans from the Château de Richelieu, where it had been placed by the famous cardinal]; and therefore let us see who runs the best! The soldiers of M. de Lescure, who commanded the left wing, hesitating to follow him, he advanced alone thirty paces before them, and then stopping, called out, 'Vive le Roi!' A battery of six pieces fired upon him with case-shot. His clothes were pierced, his left spur carried away, and his right boot torn; but he was not wounded. 'You see, my friends,' cried he instantly, 'the Blues (i. e. republicans) do not aim well.' The

peasants took courage, and rushed on; and M. de Lescure, to keep up with them, was obliged to put his horse to the full trot. At that moment, perceiving a large crucifix, they threw themselves on their knees before it. M. de Bauge wanted to urge them on. 'Let them pray,' said M. de Lescure calmly. They soon rose, and again rushed on.' The issue was that 'Marie Jeanne' was captured by the Vendéans, who regarded it as endowed with miraculous power, and were wont to adorn it with flowers and ribbons.

The modesty of the expectations of both peasants and nobles in case of success is the best proof of the pure and disinterested character of the Vendéan loyalty. Henri de Larochejaquelein said, 'If we establish the king upon the throne, he will grant me a regiment of hussars.' Another of this young nobleman's sayings is highly characteristic. When accused of inattention at the councils of war, he exclaimed, 'Why was I made a general? My only wish is to be a hussar, that I may have the pleasure of fighting.' Yet he made an excellent commander; and his dislike to councils of war appears to have been as well grounded as lord Clive's, who used to say that he never called but one council, and gained the battle (Plassy) by acting contrary to its advice. His fondness for fighting was his chief error; for he rushed to the fray as if he were summoned to a banquet, and gave his whole soul and spirit to the charge. In an attack on the republican camp, seeing his men recoil, he flung his hat into the intrenchments, and calling out, 'Who will go and fetch it?' jumped in first, and was instantly followed by numbers. Red handkerchiefs, the manufacture of the country, formed a conspicuous part of his costume: he wore one round his head, one round his neck, and several round his waist as belts. At Fontenai, the word among the Blues was, 'Aim at the red handkerchief;' and the other officers entreated him not to make him-

self a mark for their musketry. But, obstinate as Nelson in that particular, he refused; and as the only means of diminishing his danger, they adopted the red handkerchief themselves. During the greater part of the war, the right arm of Henri was useless from a wound. In this condition, he was attacked alone in a hollow way by a foot-soldier. Henri seized him by the collar with his left hand, and managed his horse so well with his legs, that the man could not 'hurt' him. 'The peasants came up, and wanted to kill the soldier; but he would not suffer it. 'Return to the republicans,' said he to the man; 'tell them you were alone with the chief of the Brigands, who has only one hand, and no weapon; and that you could not kill him.' His pithy address to his followers is well known: 'Si j'avance, suivez moi: si je recule, tuez moi: si je tombe, vengez moi.' He was killed towards the termination of the struggle (1794), by one of two grenadiers whom he had interposed to save. The words 'You shall have your lives,' were hardly out of his lips, when one of them shot him through the head. He was then only twenty-one years and a few months old.

The seat of the Chouan war was mainly in Bretagne; for the people of that province, in the early part of the struggle, had constantly sheltered such of the Vendéan peasantry as were obliged to seek refuge from the severity of the republicans, whom they consequently drew upon them in fearful array. 'The Chouan war,' says Alison, 'long consumed the vitals, and paralyzed the forces of the Republic. The nobles of that district (he errs as to the nobility of those named), Puisaye, Bourmont, George Cadoudal, and others, commenced a guerilla warfare with murderous effect; and soon, on a space of 1200 square leagues, 30,000 men were in arms in detached parties of 2000 or 3000 each. Brittany, intersected by wooded ridges, abounding with hardy smugglers ardently de-

voted to the royalist cause, and containing a population of 2,500,000 souls, afforded far greater resources for the royalist cause than the desolated La Vendée, which never contained a third of that number of inhabitants. Puisaye was the soul of the insurrection. Proscribed by the Convention, with a price set upon his head, wandering from château to château, from cottage to cottage, he became acquainted with the spirit of the Bretons, their inextinguishable hatred of the Convention; and he conceived the bold design of hoisting the royal standard again amidst their secluded fastnesses. His indefatigable activity, energetic character, and commanding eloquence, eminently qualified this intrepid chief to become the leader of a party, and soon brought all the other Breton nobles to range themselves under his standard.'

The marquis de Bouchamps was the last of the Vendéan chief commanders. He made himself master of Fontenai, Saumur, Angers, and other towns; but in endeavouring to effect the passage of the Loire, 1795, he was assailed by a superior republican force, and received a mortal wound. The Vendée royalists were never able to make head again after this event.

In the Chouan war fell, in the cause of royalty, above 200 noblemen passing under fictitious names; and of the private persons and peasantry who commenced the contest, not one in ten was alive at its close. On both sides, it would be no exaggeration to assert that 500,000 men, armed and unarmed, were sacrificed on the occasion. The word *Chouan* is a contraction of *chat huant*, a common term of reproach, under the old regime, for a sullen person, who does not reveal his designs. As the word also means a screech-owl, which carries on its labours by night, and as the Vendéans were accustomed to drill their soldiery by night, before their plan of rising was matured, to keep their design as secret as possible, they jocosely styled each other 'chouan,' till the

meaning of the word, in its new application, became known. Since that time *Chouannerie* is understood synonymously with 'loyalty,' and designates in France a love of monarchy.

Every thing connected with the Chouan contest is interesting; and it is to be lamented that its history exists only in petty and detached narratives of personal daring and hardships. Out of those small works, the escape of the marchioness de Bonchamps may be selected with advantage to the reader. The tale is from her own memoirs, edited by Madame de Genlis; and it must be premised that the marchioness, who had accompanied the army of which her husband was the heroic leader, remained with it after his decease, until its final dispersion a few months subsequent to that event. She then strove to conceal herself; and, in pursuance of her plan, took refuge, on the first night, at the house of an old servant, who was either unwilling or unable to grant her any longer an asylum.

'I was abruptly roused,' she writes, 'at five o'clock by the mistress of the house, who came in haste to tell me that the Blues were coming into those parts. I had only time to save myself, with my two children and the girl who followed us, in order to reach the village of Saint Herbolon. The distance between that village and Ancenis is hardly four leagues; but although we set off at five o'clock in the evening, we only reached Saint Herbolon at six in the morning. It is true we were on foot, and that I carried Herménée on my back;—my servant carried my daughter. We often saw the Blues at a distance; and then we were obliged to go back: I am convinced that in this flight we walked six or seven leagues. Having reached Saint Herbolon, after having been exposed to a thousand dangers, we were hospitably received at a farm;—that very day a burning fever obliged three of us to be put to bed. My daughter and myself found our bodies covered with pustules; it

was the small-pox. The symptoms were very mild in my little girl, and myself; but with Herménée the eruption was imperfect, and in that moment he gave me the most heart-rending anxiety. We were not yet recovered from this frightful malady, when some neighbours came to tell the farmer with whom we lodged, that if he had Vendéans concealed with him, he ought to send them away without delay, to avoid the destruction of his house by a detachment of Blues who were approaching. The farmer led us, in this extremity, to a barn open to every blast, and there laid us under the straw. We remained there all night. The excessive cold, joined to all that Herménée had suffered at the passage of the Loire, completely threw back the eruption of the smallpox; and the next day this dear child expired on my bosom. I know not what would have become of me in this horrible situation without religion, which is all-sufficient and all-supporting. I saw this beloved child in heaven, and I only wept for myself. I wrapped him in a large white handkerchief, and I held him dead in my arms for forty-eight hours, unwilling to part with the body till I could deposit it in consecrated ground. At length I found the means of having him secretly buried in the churchyard of Saint Herbolon. This cruel event having led to the discovery that we were sheltered in the barn, we were obliged to leave it. A good man of the village, named Drouneau, came to take us away; and he conducted us (my daughter and myself) to the house of one of his relations at Hardouillière, about half a league from Saint Herbolon. We were yet covered with smallpox. I grieved to part from my faithful servant; but I had the consolation of thinking, that, being no longer with us, she had ceased to incur any individual danger. The Republicans having come from Nantes, to make a search about our new refuge, we were compelled without delay to leave the house; and

we were placed in the hollow of a tree, about twelve feet high. We climbed to this hiding-place by means of a ladder, and we remained in it three days and three nights, still in the smallpox ; I had moreover a gathering in the knee, and one in the leg. I suffered greatly from these two sores; yet I believe they contributed to save my life, as they freely carried off all the humours of my disease. The good peasant placed near us, in the hollow of the tree, a small pitcher of water and a morsel of bread. After the moment of joy which I derived from the possibility of saving myself with my child, even in the hollow of a tree, who can express all that I suffered in that situation? But it was an asylum, and in that terrible hour it was every thing. Never did any one with more satisfaction and pleasure take possession of a convenient and suitable apartment. But, afterwards, what dark reflections came crowding upon my mind! At the end of an hour I found myself so fatigued, by the constrained attitude in which I was obliged to remain in this narrow prison, and which I could not change, that I thought it would be impossible for me to close my eyes. My daughter suffered less than myself, because I held her on my knees, and she could turn about, which she never did without rubbing my diseased knee: in these moments she always gave me extreme pain; but I abstained from complaint. I spent, indeed, a horrible night, and my inquietude, as well as my bodily sufferings, did not allow me a moment of repose. My daughter slept a little; but during her sleep she constantly groaned, and her wailings wrung my heart. When she awoke, it was to ask for drink. I was myself devoured by a burning thirst, which I dared not satisfy, in the fear of exhausting our little store of water. At length, at daybreak, our charitable peasant came to bring us some brown bread and some apples. This visit alone was a consolation to me; it proved to me that

we were not entirely abandoned, and that we had yet a support and a protector. I had no appetite, but I eagerly ate some of the apples, because they quenched my thirst a little; but I soon perceived that this bad nourishment aggravated my disease. My daughter experienced the same effect;—our fever redoubled. In spite of the cold of the season, we were both burning; we were not only without a physician, without any relief from skill, without servants, but without a bed, without a room, without having even the possibility of stretching ourselves; a prey to the sufferings of a dangerous malady, and exposed to the inclemency of the air; for if the weather had not been frosty, and had become stormy, the rain and hail would have fallen in our tree. In this dreadful state, it appeared impossible not to sink speedily under such a combination of evils. This idea caused in me the most extraordinary feeling that could ever distract the mind of a mother; I wished to survive my daughter, had it been only for an hour. I could not bear the thought of what would become of her—of what she would feel, when I should no longer answer her, when she would no longer receive my caresses, when I should no longer support her in my arms, when she should see me motionless, lifeless, cold, insensible to her tears and her cries. These thoughts rent my soul; they would assuredly have cost me my life but for religion, which lifted me above myself. I prayed with confidence, fervour, and resignation; and after every prayer, poured out from the bottom of my heart, I felt myself strengthened and reanimated; my pulse beat with less violence; my fever lessened; my heavy eyes closed; and I sometimes slept two or three hours in succession, with the sweetest and calmest sleep; my daughter also recovered her strength, and I ceased to fear for her life. On the morning of the third day, they brought us some milk, which I saved for my child, and which did her great good. At length

our place of refuge was discovered, or at least suspected. A peasant, passing in the dusk of the evening near our tree, heard me cough several times; he guessed that somebody was hidden in the tree. On his arrival in the village, he mentioned the circumstance. An old soldier of the army of M. de Bonchamps heard his account: he was living with his aged father. Having served in the army of the royalists, he often hid himself when the republicans passed through the village. Believing I was only a fugitive, he soon discovered the truth; but he abstained speaking of it to the other villagers. He pretended to retire to rest; but instead of lying down, he came immediately to the place where I was, of which he had informed himself. All at once, towards the end of the night, I heard myself called by my name;—the unsuitable hour, and the rough voice of a man which I did not recognise, terrified me very much. I did not answer. The soldier was not discouraged; he pronounced his name; but that did not give me confidence, for I did not remember it. Nevertheless, he persisted, adding in a low voice, *Trust yourself to a soldier of the army of Bonchamps.* This name, so dear, produced upon me the effect which he expected. My tears flowed whilst I thanked God for sending me a deliverer. He climbed the tree, assisted me to get up to him, and prevailed upon me to place myself on his shoulders. Although the load was heavy, he descended with much dexterity and good fortune; but as he was reaching the ground, his foot slipped, and we all fell into the hedge. My fear for my child was extreme; but I was soon comforted, for this poor little girl, who suffered no injury from the fall, began to laugh at it. This laughter, so astonishing in our circumstances, this sound, so strange to my ear, at once caused me surprise, joy, and the most tender emotion. The soldier conducted us to his father's house hard by. The good old man and his

family received us with an affecting cordiality. They lighted a large fire, which produced such an effect upon me, that, having warmed myself for a moment, I fainted. The good people, in their terror, thought at first I was dead. At length, by their kind attentions, I recovered my senses. They put me with my little girl to bed; and although we had only a bad mattress, I found it delightful. The possibility of stretching myself caused me the most agreeable sensation; I never passed a better night. Our sleep was long and peaceful, and the next morning we were really convalescent. But the terrifying news of the approach of the Blues forced us, the following night, to hide ourselves with the soldier in a large stack of hay; I again slept very well, and only awoke in broad daylight, but with a violent headache. However, the soldier, who feared for himself as well as for us, told me that the direction which the Blues had taken made it necessary for us to go back to la Hardouillière. The good people at la Hardouillière received me with the more joy, as they had been very uneasy on my account, not having found me in my tree. They told me they would give me refuge as long as I pleased. I rested myself there for some days; and surely never did the magnificence of a palace cause so much pleasure as the satisfaction I experienced in that cottage; having the power to sit on a wooden stool before a rude table, with the liberty of going about the house, and enjoying the comfort of a lamp in the evening, and spending the night on a straw bed! But I saw clearly that I compromised my kind hosts, though their friendly reception and generosity were the same. There was, at a little distance from the farm, a large hollow tree; and I there resolved to hide myself, but alone, confiding my daughter to these peasants. I established myself in that tree;—but not so high up as in the first. I only remained there one day, for nobody could bring me food. They made me leave it

early in the morning; I promised to return to the cottage in the evening; but I afterwards changed my design, and abandoned myself entirely to Providence. I wandered alone in the field; I passed the night in a ditch; at length the voices of some republican troops who passed by awoke me. Although I was dressed as a peasant, and pretended to be an inhabitant of the country, they arrested me.' Madame de Bonchamps succeeded, in the end, in obtaining her release and pardon from the Blues; and her daughter is now the wife of a noble Breton.—(See *Breton Students, and Insurrection of the Duchess de Berri.*)

OPENING OF THE SCHELD, 1792.—No sooner had Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to conciliate the Belgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheld, shut up by the treaty of Munster, 1648, was projected and ordered; notwithstanding this treaty had been confirmed to the Dutch by subsequent agreements, and those guaranteed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The Dutch regarded the measure as injurious to their trade, since Antwerp might prove a dangerous rival to Amsterdam; and the infraction formed one of the reasons which induced the parliament of Great Britain to oppose the unwarrantable pretensions of the French.

THE SCOTTISH EPISCOPAL CHURCH RESTORED.—In 1792 the royal assent was given to the Scottish Episcopalian Relief bill (*see* vol. ii. 178); but as the body thus aided had not yet adopted the confessional of the church of England, Mr. Sandford, who had the care of a congregation of the latter church in Edinburgh, respectfully suggested to Dr. Skinner, bishop of Aberdeen, and primus of the Scottish church, that a subscription to the 39 articles on the part of his clergy would effect what was greatly to be desired in two episcopalian bodies, namely, a perfect union. The result was that a synod, convened at Laurencekirk, adopted and subscribed

the 39 articles as the permanent standard of the Scottish Episcopal Church; whereon Mr. Sandford united himself and his congregation to her communion, and was soon afterwards raised to the Scottish see of Edinburgh, vacant by the retirement of Dr. Abernethy Drummond. The cruelty exercised against this pure branch of the Church Catholic had been most unmerited. After the rebellion of 1745, the edifices wherein its members had assembled for divine worship were every where burned by the English soldiery; though no political guilt could possibly be attributed to any individual of the community, and though its doctrine and discipline were precisely those of the church of England, save as to subscription. But this was not all. Laws were subsequently passed, whereby its clergy were subject to transportation for life, if three times convicted of the crime of reading the English service in the company of more than four persons; and every layman present was to be deprived for life of all civil and political privileges! These laws had continued in force, until the exertions of Judge Park and his friends, as before stated, obtained their repeal.

In 1841 a laudable desire on the part of the lay members of this ill-used church, induced the excellent primus, Dr. Skinner, bishop of Aberdeen (son of the before-named primus), and his brother prelates, to set on foot a subscription for the erection and endowment of a theological school and college, to be devoted to the training of its candidates for holy orders. Our church (records the party) having been long depressed, hath suffered the total loss of temporal endowments; but we rejoice to say that the call has been munificently responded to, and that among the subscribers are the duke of Buccleugh, John Gladstone, Esq., and the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, for 1000*l.* each.

FEDERATE REPUBLICANISM, 1793.—The tyranny of the Convention,

which was daily bringing to the scaffold at Paris some great leader of the Revolution, without regard to his belonging to the moderate or the terrorist faction, caused those throughout France who still retained property, though originally advocates of the Revolution, to change, in a measure, their sentiments. Such persons every where cooled in their attachment to the great movement; and, in proportion as their love of change diminished, a desire to go back to old feelings, and to restore the monarchy began to prevail. But they had a vast deal to contend against; and their first measure was to form leagues, under the title of 'federate republicanism,' in order the better to keep the bloodthirsty Convention at bay, before the general mind of the nation should be sounded as to the restoration of royalty. The chief formidable league with this view, was that entered into by the three cities in the south of France, Lyons, Marseilles, and Toulon. The Convention on hearing of this federation, 1793, and seeing that no time was to be lost, instantly sent Kellermann with 30,000 troops, and a considerable train of artillery, to reduce Lyons to obedience. The siege commenced on September 19, and lasted till the 9th of October. The powers of description are inadequate to the horrors which succeeded the surrender of the devoted city. Above 2000 persons were put to death by the guillotine and musket, independently of the numbers which had been slain in the course of the siege; making the total loss to the country at least 15,000. As the opulent inhabitants had been the chief promoters of the union, the confiscations of their property amounted to the enormous sum of 150 millions sterling. The total of the condemned was so great, that they were bound together in fifties and sixties, and blown to pieces by cannon loaded with grape-shot. The Marseillais opened their gates on the approach of the republican army, and submitted; and it

was on this occasion that a subser-vient musician composed 'the Marseillaise Hymn,' which became ever after the republican pæan, or triumphant song of each dominant democracy. On the other hand, the people of Toulon entered into a negotiation with the English admiral, lord Hood; who took possession of the city and shipping, in the name of Louis XVII., throwing into the place a mixed force of all nations, amounting to 18,000 men. Toulon was at length invested; and on the 30th of November, the garrison having made a vigorous sortie, in order to destroy some batteries which the enemy were erecting, the French troops were surprised, and compelled to fly. The allies, too much elated with their success, pursued the fugitives till they unexpectedly encountered a considerable force sent to cover their retreat; and in the conflict which ensued, nearly 1000 of the British and allied forces were killed, wounded, or captured. On the night of December 19th, the allies and part of the inhabitants (having previously set fire to the town and shipping) evacuated the place.

The precipitation with which the evacuation was effected, was attended with the most melancholy consequences to the wretched inhabitants, who crowded to the shores, and demanded the protection promised them by the British. Though every effort was made to receive them on board the ships, thousands were left to fall into the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many made a vain attempt to swim to the fleet, while some were seen to shoot themselves in despair on the beach. The flames, meanwhile, were seen spreading in every direction, and the ships that had been set on fire, threatened to destroy, by their sudden explosion, every thing around them. The scene on board the fleet was scarcely less dreadful. Laden with the heterogeneous mixture of nations; with aged men and infants, as well as women; with the sick from all the

hospitals, and the mangled soldiers from the posts just deserted, their wounds still undressed; nothing could equal the horrors of the spectacle, except the still more appalling cries of distraction and agony that filled the car, for husbands, fathers, and children, left on shore to perish. It is needless to say that 'federate republicanism' was heard of no more.

THE NEW FRENCH CALENDAR, 1793.—Fabre d'Eglantine made the year to commence on the 22d of September (the autumnal equinox), a period inconsistent with the laws of nature, the sun being then retrograde. The object of the change was an impious attempt to obliterate every allusion to the deity, by abolishing the Sabbath from the Calendar. As all important facts during the Revolution, and for some time after, were recorded by this new nomenclature, it may be useful to show how it designated the ancient division of months. *Autumn*. Vendémiaire (vintage), September, 22; Brumaire (foggy), October 22; Frimaire (frosty), November 21; *Winter*, Nivose (snowy), December 21; Pluviose (rainy), January 20; Ventose (windy), February 19; *Spring*, Germinal (budding), March 21; Floréal (flowery), April 20; Prairial (hay-harvest), May 20; *Summer*, Messidor (corn-harvest), June 19; Thermidor (hot), July 19; Fructidor (fruit), August 18. Every month was to consist of thirty days, and those days were divided into decades (or weeks of ten days): as this, however would give the year only 360 days, five were added answering to those of our September, from the 17th to the 21st; and in leap-year a sixth was appended. The decades, thirty-six in number, were named distinctively in numerical order; the first being Primidi, the second Duodi, and so on; and each so named ten days was devoted to some virtue, grace, or moral principle; the first to Nature and the Supreme Being, the second to the human race, the third to the French people, the sixth to liberty and equality, the

tenth to the hatred of tyrants, the twenty-sixth to filial piety, and so on. The five supplementary days were called Sans-culottides, out of respect to the unclad revolutionary mob, called Septembrizers, and were kept as days of joy. A large party in the state still persisted in observing the Sunday, and many in trade shut their shops on that day: such persons were called Dominicans, and the observers of the new code Decadists, from their calling every tenth day, as well as the tenth decade, *decadi*.

LORD MACARTNEY'S EMBASSY TO CHINA, 1793.—The squadron, having on board the ambassador of the king of Great Britain (consisting of the Lion, Hindustan, and Jackal), anchored in a broad bay in the Yellow Sea, near the city of Ten-chu-fu, the last syllable of which always denotes a place of the first order. Some of the suite were constantly invited by mandarins to land, and hold conversation with them in a temple close to the shore; when particular inquiries were made as to the species of nutriment to which the ambassador and his suite had been accustomed, and how his excellency wished to travel. In the crowd were some of the bonzes, or priests of the temple; and these were remarkable for the contrast between their gray beards, and their robes of rose-coloured silk. On August 5, lord Macartney and his suite were shipped on board junks, vessels very capacious, but built of such light wood, and so constructed, that they did not draw more than eighteen inches of water, though they were lofty above it; and in these they reached Ta-cu, up the Pei-ho river, that evening. Most of the houses on their way were little better than huts, with mud walls and thatched roofs. A few buildings were large, elevated, painted, and ornamented, like the dwellings of opulence; but there were scarcely any which indicated the existence of middle ranks, or the multiplied gradations existing elsewhere between abundant wealth and absolute indigence. The young children

seen about were mostly naked; the men in general were well-looking, well-limbed, strong, and muscular; the few women who were in the ways were very alert, but their faces were not visible. The progress of the embassy up the Pei-ho was very slow, from the very serpentine form of the river; and when the first night came on, the banks were illuminated by lanterns, the transparent sides of which were made of differently coloured paper. The number of lanterns hoisted at the same time on the mast-heads of the various vessels in the river, denoted the respective ranks of the passengers on board; all which produced a moving and particoloured illumination, a species of magnificence much affected by the Chinese. The night was nearly as noisy as the day, to which contributed not a little the shrill sounds of the loo or gong, on every occasion of conveying signals. On arriving next day at Tien-sing, where the viceroy resided, lord Macartney was informed that the emperor was at his country residence of Zhe-hol, in Tartary; and it was therefore resolved to go on to Tong-chu-fu by water, and thence journey by land to Zhe-hol. A play was performed in a temporary theatre, open to the air, which the viceroy commanded to be erected opposite the ambassador's junk, before his excellency proceeded; and in the way to Tong-chu-fu all the carriages observed on the roads had only two wheels, many gentlemen were seen on horseback, and many ladies in close litters, suspended between mules. Not the slightest rise of ground was observed by the party between the river and the horizon, on either side, until the fourth day of their departure from Tien-sing, when some blue mountains were observed rising from the north-west; and they indicated the approach to Peking, beyond which they were situated. From Tong-chu-fu the embassy passed on, in their own post-chariots, to Peking; and it was remarked on reaching that city, that not one person in the garb of a beg-

gar had been seen. On the way from Tong-chu-fu, every Chinese gentleman, whether on horseback or in a two-wheeled vehicle, alighted, out of respect to the ambassador; and the road between the two places was paved in the centre with flags of granite. On entering Peking, it exhibited an appearance contrary to that of European cities, in which the streets are often so narrow, and the houses so lofty, that from one extremity of a street the buildings appear at the other to be leaning towards, and closing upon each other. Here few of the houses were higher than one story; none more than two; while the width of the street which divided them was considerably above 100 feet. The first street extended in a line directly to the westward, until it was interrupted by the eastern wall of the imperial palace, called 'the yellow wall,' from the colour of the small roof of varnished tiles with which the top of it is covered. Various public buildings, seen at the same time, and considered as belonging to the emperor, were covered in the same manner. Those roofs, uninterrupted by chimneys, and indented in the sides and ridges into gentle curves, with an effect more pleasing than would be produced by long straight lines, were adorned with a variety of figures, either in imitation of real objects, or more commonly as mere works of fancy; and the whole, shining like gold under a brilliant sun, immediately caught the eye with an appearance of grandeur in that part of buildings where it was not accustomed to be sought for. In front of most of the houses were shops painted and gilt, and decorated like those of Tong-chu-fu, but in a grander style. Over some of them were broad terraces, covered with shrubs and flowers. Before the doors several lanterns were hung of horn, muslin, silk, and paper, fixed to frames; in varying the form of which, the Chinese seemed to have exercised their fancy to the utmost. Outside the shops, as well as within

them, was displayed a variety of goods for sale. Several circumstances, independently of the arrival of strangers, contributed to throng so wide a street. A procession was moving towards the gate, in which the white, or bridal colour, according to European ideas, of the persons who formed it, seemed at first to announce a marriage ceremony; but the appearance of young men, overwhelmed with grief, showed it to be a funeral, much more indeed than the corpse itself, which was contained in a handsome square case, shaded with a canopy, painted with gay and lively colours, and preceded by standards of variegated silks. Behind it were sedan-chairs covered with white cloth, containing the female relations of the deceased; the white colour denoting affliction in China. White is, therefore, never seen in the ceremony of nuptials, a procession of which was met soon afterwards, where the lady (as yet unseen by the bridegroom) was being carried in a gilt and gaudy chair, hung round with festoons of artificial flowers, and followed by relations, attendants, and servants, bearing the paraphernalia, being the only portion given with a daughter in marriage by her parents. The crowd was not a little increased by the mandarins of rank appearing always with numerous attendants; and still more by circles of the populace round auctioneers, venders of medicines, fortunetellers, singers, jugglers, and story-tellers, beguiling their hearers of a few of their chen, or copper-money.

Among the stories that caught the imagination of the people, the arrival of the embassy was said to furnish no inconsiderable share. The presents conveying by it to the emperor were asserted to include whatever was rare in other countries, or not known before to the Chinese. Of the animals brought it was gravely mentioned, that there was an elephant of the size of a monkey, and as fierce as a lion; and a cock that fed on charcoal. Every thing was supposed to vary from what had been seen in

Pekin before, and to possess qualities different from what had been there experienced in the same substances. The sight of the strangers, bringing such extraordinary curiosities, disturbed, as they passed along, the several occupations of the people; and Chinese soldiers, seeing the crowd stop the carriage-way, drove the people off by smacking long whips upon the ground. Among the spectators of the novel sight were some women of a Tartar race. Their feet were not cramped, like those of the Chinese; and a thick patch of vermilion on the middle of the lower lip seemed to be a favourite mode of using paint. Some of them were sitting in covered carriages; others were on horseback, and rode astride like men. At length the embassy crossed a street which extended the whole length of the Tartar city, (Pekin being divided into two parts, one called the Tartar city, walled in, and a full third larger than London, properly so called; the other half, called the Chinese city, is surrounded by a wall of nine miles in length, having a diameter of three miles), namely, four miles! interrupted only by triumphal fabrics and pagodas, the latter being only ornamental erections, and not temples,—the temples being in all respects like common houses.

On reaching the part of the Tartar city where stands the imperial palace, the embassy had a view of its gardens, on entering one of three immense gates in the wall. The grounds occupied about a square mile, and were laid out precisely in the manner depicted on the Chinese screens, paper, and pictures, which, in days of old, were used to ornament English mansions. The ground was seldom level, as outside the garden wall; some of it was raised into hills of steep ascent; and the earth taken to form them left broad and deep hollows, which became filled with water. Out of these artificial lakes, of which the margins were diversified and irregular, small islands rose, with a variety of fanciful edifices, interspersed with

trees. On hills of different heights, the various buildings, which together form the palace, were erected, of course detached, and constructed in the most fanciful ways, highly adorned with gilding, and brilliant colouring, and affording a complete scene of enchantment, when contrasted with the dark foliage through which the gilt and enamelled parapets and pagoda points in all directions seemed to burst. Fanciful bridges, highly painted, and hung with bell-shaped ornaments, ran from lake to lake; and from many of the grotesque buildings were long lines of zig-zag railing, gilt or coloured, but occasionally hidden by the profusion of flowers of extraordinary size, colours, and beauty, which burst through the fantastic openings of the fence, as if to outvie its imitative painting. Most of the buildings themselves were approached by a flight of steps, and the floors of them paved with what appeared to be marble of various colours, cut into diamond shapes.

At length the embassy was on the road to Tartary, lord Macartney's post-carriage being drawn by four Tartar horses, and being the first four-wheeled and English carriage that had ever rolled thereon. His lordship took occasionally some of the mandarins into his carriage, who were at first somewhat startled, fearing lest it should overturn: but, being assured of its perfect safety, they became inexpressibly delighted with its easiness, lightness, and rapidity. About twenty miles from the capital, the country towards Tartary began to rise; and a few miles further on, the travellers stopped for the day at one of the emperor's palaces, surrounded with a park and pleasure-grounds. On the fourth day from Peking, a prominent line was descried by the embassy in its progress, which, on a nearer survey, assumed its real form of a wall with battlements. This was the famous Wall of China, which is not so remarkable for its antiquity, amounting to three centuries beyond the Christian era, nor for its extent

of 1500 miles, as for the wonderful appearance of the mountains over which it is carried, and which are apparently inaccessible. As the travellers advanced into Tartary, the roads became more rugged, the mountains less richly clothed, and the trees were chiefly stunted oaks, aspen, elm, hazel, and walnut, diminished to the size of shrubs. During the seventh and last day's journey, the mountains, receding a little from each other, opened to the view of the travellers the valley of Zhe-hol. Here his imperial majesty retires in summer from his Chinese dominions, to a palace and pleasure-grounds; the former called 'the seat of grateful coolness,' and the latter 'the garden of innumerable trees.' The road near to Zhe-hol is perceptible from an eminence in the emperor's gardens; and from that spot, as was afterwards learned, his imperial majesty had the curiosity to view the procession of the embassy. It was received with military honours, amid a crowd of spectators on horseback and on foot. The suite of edifices destined for the embassy was situated on the gentle slope of a hill, at the southern extremity of the town of Zhe-hol. On the north side of that town, which, except the houses of mandarins, consisted of miserable hovels, the imperial gardens, the palaces, and the temples, displayed much grandeur: magnificence and wretchedness seem to know no medium in China,—a manifest proof of the antiquity of the country, and that it has been rarely interfered with by other nations, of which another evidence is the names of streets and places, all of which were found to be not arbitrary appellations, but descriptive of things existing in such streets or places.

It being determined, after much debate, that the embassy need not prostrate themselves before the emperor, lord Macartney and his suite went before daylight, on the morning fixed for the first audience, to the garden of the palace of Zhe-hol. In the midst of the garden was a spa-

cious and magnificent tent, supported by gilded pillars : and in this, his imperial majesty, Kien Lung, was to receive, seated on his throne, as a particular distinction, the delegate from the king of Great Britain. Soon after daylight, the sound of several instruments, and the confused voices of men at a distance, announced the emperor's approach. He soon appeared from behind a high and perpendicular mount skirted with trees, as if from a sacred grove, preceded by a number of persons busied in proclaiming aloud his virtues and his power. He was seated in a triumphal car, borne by sixteen men ; and was accompanied by guards, officers of the household, flag and umbrella-bearers, and music. He was clad in plain purple silk, with a bonnet like that of Scottish Highlanders, but having on the front of it a large pearl—the only ornament he wore. On his entrance into the tent, his majesty mounted the throne by the front steps, consecrated to his use alone. Three of the principal persons of his household were close to him, and always spoke to him upon their knees. The princes of his family, the tributaries, and great officers of state, having taken their places, the president of 'the tribunal of rites' conducted the ambassador, attended by his page and interpreter, to the steps of the throne, on the left side, which is in China accounted the place of honour. The other gentlemen of the embassy, and a great number of mandarins, stood at the opening of the tent, whence most of the ceremonies could be observed. The emperor, after some conversation with the ambassador, gave, as the first present to his Britannic majesty, a gem, accounted by the Chinese of high value : it was upwards of a foot long, and carved into the form of a sceptre. The etiquette requiring that ambassadors should, besides the presents brought in the name of the sovereign, offer others on their own part, his excellency and his suite respectfully presented

theirs ; which Kien Lung condescended to receive, and gave in return others to them. (This interchange of presents is an indubitable proof of the antiquity and primitiveness of the Chinese nation.) During the ceremonies, Kien Lung appeared perfectly unreserved, cheerful, and unaffected. Throughout the day, his attention to his guests did not abate ; a banquet being served, he sent them several dishes from his own table ; and soon after the ambassador had retired, he transmitted to him presents of silk, porcelain, and tea. The next example of civility was an invitation to see the pleasure-grounds of Zhe-hol, which included the utmost variety of surface ; some parts bearing the hardy oaks of northern hills, and others the tender plants of southern valleys ; the whole exhibiting the striking contrast of rugged wildness and cultivated softness.

After many interviews, in one of which there was a ludicrous scene with the Chinese astronomers, who laughed heartily on hearing explained the Copernican hypothesis, and the Newtonian system of gravitation, the embassy quitted China for England, having remained five months in the country ; during which more knowledge was gained by Europeans, of its inhabitants and their customs, than had been acquired in as many preceding centuries. It is clear that the Chinese are the political and almost moral, antipodes of modern nations. We have shown how the right hand yields the place of honour to the left, and how white usurps the place of black : to these may be added, hanging having the precedence of beheading, the nobles, if requisite, being hung, and the vulgar beheaded ; and whereas in Europe parents transmit nobility to their children, a man of China, who has been illustrious by his own merit, communicates the honours of rank and title, not to his descendants, but to his deceased progenitors. As respects 'office' in China, *knowledge* is the sole passport to promotion ;

and all aspirants undergo very rigid examinations. The population of Pekin is understood to be above two millions; but Nanking is a still larger city. The canals of China are, like its wall, wonders of art: what is termed 'the great canal' is above 500 miles long, and 30,000 men were employed 40 years in its construction. Every province has its canal, with branches to each important town. (See *Lord Amherst's Embassy*.)

INSURRECTION OF KOSCIUSKO, 1794.—Thaddeus Kosciusko, descended from an ancient and noble, though not rich family, in Lithuania, was born 1756, and educated in the military school at Warsaw. The prince Adam Czartoriski, perceiving his talents and industry, made him second lieutenant in the corps of cadets, and sent him, at his own expense, to France, where he studied drawing and the military art. After his return he was made captain. But the consequences of an unhappy passion for the daughter of Sosnowski, marshal of Lithuania (who was afterwards married to the prince Joseph Lubomirski), obliged him to leave Poland; and, being thus thrown upon the world, he engaged under Washington in the revolt of the American colonies of Great Britain, and in that contest received the rank of general, and in 1786 returned to Poland. When the Polish army was formed, 1789, the diet appointed him a major-general; and after declaring himself for the constitution of May 3rd, 1791, he served under prince Joseph Poniatowski. In the campaign of 1792, he distinguished himself against the Russians at Ziele-neck and Dubienka; and at the latter place, under cover of some works which he had thrown up in the course of twenty-four hours, he repulsed, with 4000 men, three successive attacks of 18,000 Russians, who prevailed only after the loss of four thousand men. Kosciusko retired without having suffered severely. When king Stanislaus submitted to Catherine, Kosciusko, with sixteen other offi-

cers, left the army, and retired to Leipsic; and the legislative assembly of France thereupon gave him the rights of a French citizen. The Poles becoming impatient under Russian domination, some of Kosciusko's friends in Warsaw determined to make an effort for freedom, and accordingly elected him their general, 1794. Kosciusko, responding to the call, went to the frontier, and sent generals Zajonczeck and Dzialynski into the Russian provinces of Poland, to prepare every thing in silence; but when the Polish army had been merged in part in the Russian, and the remainder had been reduced to 15,000 men, the insurrection broke out before the time fixed on. All now flew to arms; the Russian garrison was immediately expelled from Cracow; the citizens formed the act of confederation of Cracow, March 24th, 1794; and Kosciusko, at their head, called upon the Poles to restore the constitution of May 3rd. Kosciusko then advanced to meet the Russian forces; and without artillery, at the head of only four thousand men, part of whom were armed only with scythes and pikes, he defeated twelve thousand of his opponents at Raclawice, April the 4th. His army was now increased to nine thousand men, and he formed a junction with general Grochowski. In the mean time, the Russian garrisons of Warsaw and Wilna had been put to death, or made prisoners by the Poles. Kosciusko checked this outbreak of popular fury, sent troops against Vohlynia, and organized the government at Warsaw. He marched out of the city with thirteen thousand men, to oppose seventeen thousand Russians and Prussians, attacked them at Czezecocini, June the 6th, but was defeated after an obstinate conflict, and obliged to retreat to his intrenched camp before Warsaw. The Prussians having soon after taken Cracow, disturbances broke out in Warsaw, June the 28th; on which occasion the people murdered a part of the prisoners, and hung some Poles who were connect-

ed with the Russians. But Kosciusko punished the guilty, and restored order. The king of Prussia now formed a junction with the Russians, and besieged Warsaw with sixty thousand men. Kosciusko, however, kept up the courage of his countrymen; and after two months of bloody fighting, he repelled, with ten thousand men, a general assault. All Great Poland now rose under Dombrowski against the Prussians. This circumstance, together with the loss of a body of artillery, compelled the king of Prussia to raise the siege of Warsaw. Thus did Kosciusko, with an army of 20,000 regular troops, and 40,000 armed peasants, maintain himself against four hostile armies, amounting together to 150,000 men. His great power consisted in the confidence which the Poles reposed in him; and it must be allowed that he displayed the integrity and disinterestedness of Washington, with the activity of Cæsar. He attended to procuring supplies, superintended the raising and payment of money, prevented plundering and fraud, and was equally indefatigable in the council and in the field. His days and nights, all his powers, were devoted to his country. He secured the administration of justice, abolished bondage, and finally restored to the nation, May the 29th, in the supreme national council which he established, the great power which had been delegated to him. The empress Catherine at length decided the contest by an overwhelming superiority of numbers. Suwarov defeated the Poles under Sierakowski at Brzec, in Volhynia, September the 18th and 19th; Repnin penetrated through Lithuania, and formed an union with Suwarov; and general Fersen was to support them with 12,000 men. To prevent this, Kosciusko marched from Warsaw with 21,000 men. Poninski was to have supported him with his division; but the Russians intercepted the messenger. The united Russian armies under Fersen attacked

the Poles, who were not more than one-third the strength of the Russians, October the 10th, at Macziewice (about 50 miles from Warsaw); they were three times repulsed, but, on the fourth attack, they broke through the Polish lines. Kosciusko fell from his horse, covered with wounds, exclaiming, 'Finis Poloniæ!' and was made prisoner by the enemy. In losing him, his country lost all. Suwarov stormed Praga, November the 4th; Warsaw capitulated on the 9th; Madalinski left Great Poland; an Austrian army appeared before Lublin. But the noble efforts of the conquered had awakened the regard of Europe towards the unhappy country; and the dearest hopes of the nation—the restoration of their monarchy with a free constitution—found a powerful support in public opinion. Though Catherine had caused Kosciusko and his colleagues, who were prisoners of war, to be thrown into a state prison, Paul I. gave them their liberty, and distinguished Kosciusko by marks of his esteem. He even offered his own sword to the general, who modestly declined its acceptance, with these touching words: 'I no longer need a sword, sire, since I have no longer a country; and to the day of his death he would never again wear a sword. Paul then presented him with 1500 peasants, and his friend Niemcewicz, the poet, with 1000; but when arrived on the Russian frontier, Kosciusko declined this munificent token of royal esteem by a letter. He and his friend now went by the way of Paris and London (in both which capitals Kosciusko was treated with distinction), to America, 1797; and though, when Napoleon subsequently formed the plan of restoring Poland, in order to injure Russia and extend his own power over the east of Europe, Kosciusko was offered a command, he would take no part in the struggle, (which was conducted by Dombrowski in 1807 and 1808), being prevented, he declared, by having given his word to

Paul I. never to serve against the Russians. To Napoleon's proposals he answered, 'that he would exert himself in the cause of Poland, when he saw the country possessed of its ancient territories, and having a free constitution.' Fouché, the French minister, tried every means to carry him to Poland; but he refused, and an appeal to the Poles, which appeared under his name in the *Moniteur* of November the 1st, 1806, he declared to be spurious. Having purchased an estate in the neighbourhood of Fontainebleau, he lived there in retirement until 1814, when he wrote to the emperor Alexander, asking of him an amnesty for the Poles in foreign lands, and requesting him to become king of Poland, and to give the country a free constitution like that of England. A fall with his horse from a precipice, not far from Vevay, occasioned his death, in his 62nd year, October, 1817, at Soleure. He was never married. In 1818, the emperor Alexander removed his body, and had it deposited in the tomb of the kings of Cracow: and all the women of Poland went into mourning for his loss.

MAROON INSURRECTION, 1795.—The runaway slaves of Jamaica and Cuba, as they escaped year after year from their respective masters, congregated in the woods on the north side of Jamaica, and there, under the appellation of Maroons, passed a predatory life. In 1733 the assembly appointed garrisons, from whose barracks excursions were from time to time made against them; nevertheless the contest went on till articles of pacification were concluded with the insurgents, 1738. This peace was tolerably observed till July, 1795, when two Maroons of Trelawney town, having been found guilty by a jury of stealing some pigs, were punished with thirty-nine lashes each. The proceeding drove the Maroons into open revolt; and a bloody and successful war was waged by these savages against the whole force that the government could raise. At last

the assembly, though with much reluctance, sent to the island of Cuba for one hundred blood-hounds, and engaged a number of Spanish chasseurs to direct their operations. These animals are used in Cuba to pursue wild bullocks, which they drive from such heights and recesses of the mountains as are inaccessible to the hunters. When these new allies were landed at Montego Bay, in December, the wild and formidable appearance of both men and dogs spread terror through the place. The streets were cleared, all doors were shut, and not a negro ventured to stir out, while the muzzled animals, ferociously making at every object, and dragging forward the chasseurs, who, with difficulty held them in with heavy rattling chains, proceeded onwards. Anxious to review the chasseurs, general Walpole arrived at Seven Rivers, where the Spaniards, forty in number, soon appeared, at the end of a gentle acclivity, drawn out in a line, with their dogs in front, unmuzzled, and held by cotton ropes. On receiving the command 'fire,' the men discharged their fusils, to ascertain what effect would be produced on the dogs, if engaged under a fire of the Maroons. The volley was no sooner discharged, than the dogs rushed forward with the greatest fury, amid the shouts of the Spaniards, who were dragged on by them with irresistible force. Some of the animals, maddened by the shout of attack, seized, while held back by the ropes, on the stocks of the guns in the hands of their keepers, and tore pieces out of them. Their impetuosity was such, that the general found it necessary to get expeditiously into the chaise from which he had alighted; and if the most strenuous exertions had not been made to stop them, they would most certainly have seized upon his horses. A scene so terrific had its effect. General Walpole was ordered to advance upon the Maroon territory on the 14th of January following, with his dogs in the rear. Their fame, however, had reached the

Maroons ; and the general had penetrated but a short way into the woods, when a supplication for mercy was brought from the enemy, and 260 of them soon afterwards surrendered, on no other condition than a promise of their lives. It is pleasing to observe that not a drop of blood was spilt after the dogs arrived in the island : the war terminated with the expatriation to Halifax of every Maroon who did not swear to leave his predatory habits ; and from that period to this day, the Maroons have been known as quiet occupiers of a few towns, built by themselves in those forests of Jamaica, wherein they at first became a community.

The blood-hound is a sagacious species of dog, not peculiar to Cuba. The 'sleugh hund' may be called the feudal dog, since no baronial castle was thought complete without one ; and connected with many a romantic story of the middle ages have been his unerring attempts to track the object of his pursuit across pathless wilds, and through seemingly impervious thickets, to his place of concealment. Our own ancestors soon discovered the infallibility of the blood-hound in tracing any animal, living or dead, to its resting-place ; and they accordingly took pains to train him early for the purposes of wood-craft, war, or 'following gear,' as the pursuit after property plundered in a border foray was termed.

ALLEGED ESCAPE OF THE DAUPHIN 1793.—After the close of the French Revolution, many attempts were made to induce the world to believe that the duc de Normandie, or, as he is called in history, Louis XVII., had escaped from the hands of his persecutors, and was yet alive. Many pretenders, of course, arose to substantiate the assertion ; and the last of these, since his expulsion from France by Louis Philippe a few years back, has taken up his abode in England, and published his case. To begin with his escape from the Temple : Laurencz, his keeper (he affirms), contrived a hiding-place in an old lum-

ber-room in the garret, at the top of the tower of the Temple, into which one night he was conveyed half asleep, under the effects of a dose of opium. A great doll was put into his bed. This was done just as the guard was changed ; the said guard, satisfied with seeing a sleeping figure, and not surprised at his silence, which was habitual, gave no alarm at the time ; and as watch was kept only at the entrance of the tower, nothing was easier than to take him up stairs unperceived. The substitution was discovered, however, that night : and the government, alarmed, procured immediately a deaf and dumb child, who took the dauphin's place in prison, and was treated exactly as the latter had been. His friends sent off another child to Strasburg, as a blind ; and, so far as we learn from the book, no suspicion fell upon Laurencz, nor did they ever think of searching the old lumber-room. Laurencz, it seems, supplied him with food from time to time ; and there he remained from the end of October, 1794, to the beginning of July, 1795. Meanwhile, when, in spite of their precautions, it was whispered abroad that the real dauphin was no longer in the Temple, the government decided that the deaf and dumb child should die, lest the imposture should be discovered. They therefore caused poison to be mixed with his food, and sent the physician Dessault to visit him, on pretence of humanity. Dessault saw the case at once, gave the child an antidote, and at the same time declared that he was not the dauphin. Dessault died the next day ; *poisoned*, as the narrative asserts. Meanwhile Josephine (at that time the mistress of Barras, and eventually empress), ignorant of the trick, procured the deaf and dumb child (whom she supposed to be the dauphin), to be carried off ; a rickety child from the hospitals was again substituted by the government ; he was attended by other physicians, who had never seen either the former child or the dauphin, and died on the

8th of July, 1795. On the day before his burial, the body was removed to the dauphin's hiding-place; the dauphin, again drugged with opium, was placed in the coffin. On the road to the cemetery the supposed body was taken out, and concealed at the bottom of the carriage, and the coffin filled with rubbish; and the dauphin's friends re-entered Paris, and placed him in a place of safety. Scarcely was this done, when the secret was discovered. The coffin was disinterred, and buried in another spot, and every exertion used to discover the prince's retreat; but for some time ineffectually. After his escape, he felt sick, was removed into the country, recaptured, and shortly after escaped again by the help of Josephine, who was apprised of his situation by a Monsieur B—. This Monsieur B—, and another man, named Montmorin, carried him to Italy. On the French invasion of that country, they took shipping for England. B— was murdered, the prince was captured at sea, discovered, and again imprisoned; but Montmorin escaped, and in 1803 managed to deliver him again. Again he was detected, and early in 1804 thrown into a vaulted dungeon, where he languished nearly five years in darkness and solitude, with no companions but rats; till at length the faithful Montmorin again procured his deliverance, and carried him to Frankfort, 1809. Here they lived together for some months in safety and concealment; and here the alleged dauphin learned German, and watchmaking. After this, the narrator and Montmorin fell in with a party of Schill's volunteers, who, with the duke of Brunswick Oels, were engaged in effecting their celebrated retreat to England from Germany. Some French troops, however, surprised the party, and Montmorin was killed: his companion was wounded and captured, but not recognized. He was conveyed to the fortress of Wesel, but managed to escape thence with a young Prussian, named Frie-

derichs, and on foot they travelled through Westphalia, sleeping in woods by day, and walking by night. Friederichs, however, was taken and hanged one morning, when he had left his wallet and his friend in a hollow tree, to seek for provisions. The latter pursued his journey, carrying his deceased comrade's wallet along with him, and on the frontiers of Prussia met a gentleman in a carriage, who took pity on the wanderer, and carried him to Berlin. This personage asked how he meant to live; and being told he had no money, bid him look in the wallet, which he had never opened; whereupon, ripping up the seams, he discovered 1600 francs of gold. Wishing him joy of the prize, the gentleman put him down at the Aigle Noire. After some fruitless efforts to find out Friederichs' friends, the narrator appropriated the money to his own subsistence; and he then set up as a watchmaker, in a hired apartment, to earn his bread. This was in 1810, being then twenty-five. It is sufficient to say that, after many vain attempts to gain admission to the duchess d'Angoulême, and other remnants of the family of Louis XVI., the narrator, who had at length married, ventured to Paris, 1833, whence he was driven by the government, 1836, for alleged offences. While at Paris, however, he seems to have been seen by two females, somewhat advanced in years, whose testimony is of value, however possible it may be that, from the lapse of time, they should fall into error. Madame de Rambaud, who was with the dauphin from the hour of his birth as a nurse, to the date of his captivity in the Temple, seven years and a half, and Madame St. Hilaire, another old servant of the royal household, who had always believed that the dauphin really escaped, saw the pretending duc of Normandie first in 1833; and both being convinced of his identity with Louis XVII., the latter, in a letter to the duchess d'Angoulême, sister of Louis XVII. thus writes:

‘God, my conscience, and the salvation of my soul, impose on me the obligation of informing your royal highness that your unhappy brother is living, and that he is now with us. I have no hesitation in assuring your royal highness that I believe in the identity of this unhappy prince, as firmly as I believe in God, and in his divine Son, the Saviour of the world.’

The duchess, however, has ever refused to see the aspirant; and this refusal, together with the fact of his life having been attempted both in France and England, has given colour to pretensions, which, however empty, derive something of importance when reference is made to the singularly imperfect proofs and almost contradictory statements given by the French revolutionary government to the public, regarding the dauphin's death. The following are extracts from the register of deaths, and the *procès verbal* of the *autopsy*, or inspection of the medical officers. ‘On 24th Prairial, year 3, (12th of June, 1795), died Louis Charles Capet at three in the afternoon in the Temple, son of Louis Capet, last king of the French, and of Marie Antoinette Josephine Jeanne of Austria. Signed by Dusser, commissary of police, Etienne Lasne, keeper of the Temple, calling himself a neighbour, Remi Bigot, *labourer*, of 61 Temple-street, calling himself a friend, and Robin, public officer, witnesses.’ The autopsy was conducted by doctors Pelletan, Dumangin, Jeanroy, and Lassus. ‘Having all four arrived, at eleven o'clock in the morning, at the outer gate of the Temple, we were there received by the commissaries, who took us into the tower. Upon reaching the apartment on the second floor, in an inner room we found the dead body of a child, who seemed to us to be about ten years old, which the commissaries told us was that of the son of Louis Capet, and which two of us recognised as the child which they had attended for some days; the above-mentioned commissaries declared to us that this child had died on the preceding day, to-

wards three o'clock in the afternoon. On the 21st Prairial, the deputy Sevestre ascended the tribune of the Convention, and made the following report: ‘Citizens; for some time past the son of Capet was suffering from a swelling in the right knee, and in the left wrist; on the 15th Floreal, the pains increased, the patient lost his appetite, and fever succeeded. The celebrated Dessault, medical officer, was appointed to visit and prescribe for him; his talents and probity assured us that no care could be wanting which humanity could dictate. However, the disease assumed a very serious appearance. On the 16th of this month (4th June, 1795), Dessault died. To take his place, the committee appointed citizen Pelletan, a well known medical officer, and with him was joined citizen Dumangin, first physician to the hospital of health. Their bulletin of eleven o'clock yesterday morning announced alarming symptoms in the patient; and at a quarter past two in the afternoon, we received news of the death of Capet's son. The committee of general safety have charged me to make this known to you. All is verified; here are the *procès verbaux*, which will be deposited and remain in your archives.’

NATIONAL DISTRESS IN ENGLAND, 1795.—The vast weight of taxation arising from the duration of the war, and the high price of bread (fifteen pence the quartern) occasioned many disturbances amongst the lower orders. At length, to relieve the burden of additional imposts, the patriotic portion of the wealthy in the kingdom raised, in the short space of fifteen hours and twenty minutes, a loan, to support the government, to the amount of 18,000,000*l.* In 1797, the Bank was compelled to give up its issue of specie, and to send forth paper; and for the better accommodation of the public, notes of 1*l.* value were then for the first time allowed, without in any way affecting public credit, notwithstanding the alarm such a measure occasioned.

BRITISH GUIANA FOUNDED, 1796.—

This English colony, composing the settlements on the rivers Essequibo, Demarara, and Berbice, and covering an area of nearly 100,000 square miles, extends 200 miles from east to west, along that portion of South America termed the Main, formed by the deltas of the Amazon and Orinoco. The other portion of Guiana is divided between the Spaniards, Portuguese, and French. In 1580 the Dutch first colonized this coast; and although driven out by the Indians, at the instigation of the Spaniards, they returned in 1602, and reported their colony in so flourishing a condition 1621, that the Dutch government undertook to supply it with negro slaves from Africa, for the prosecuting of which trade a company was formed, and a monopoly granted. Essequibo was, in 1665, taken by the English, and various contests for that part of Berbice were carried on at times by French and British till 1763, the Dutch always maintaining their ground against both nations. In 1763, however, a negro insurrection began in Berbice, which raged a year, desolating the Dutch possessions; and they all surrendered to the English admiral, sir Ralph Abercrombie, 1796. By the peace of Amiens, 1801, they were restored to the Dutch, but were again seized in 1803, and have ever since belonged to Great Britain. In 1812 the district of Essequibo was merged in Demerara—and those two again in Berbice 1831; and the three have ever since constituted what is now called British Guiana.

British Guiana is a flat country, admirably adapted for plantations of sugar, coffee, cotton, and plantains. Large quantities of these, with rum and molasses, are annually exported. From the lowness of the level, the Demerara portion is, like Holland, drained by canals and sluices, with lofty dikes or mounds of mud, of considerable thickness, embanking each estate, and kept in repair, together with the numerous bridges, by the proprietors of the land in which they are situated. As the country is

ascended from 80 to 100 miles inland, its fine savannahs are frequently interrupted by a beautiful hill and dale territory, varied with high and frequently rocky lands. The Demerara governors have been, 1796, M. Beaumont; 1806, Henry Bentinck; 1818, major-general Murray; 1824, sir B. Urban; 1833, sir J. C. Smyth; 1838, Henry Light, Esq. The Berbice governors: 1796, governor Van Batenburg; 1806, lieutenant-colonel Nicholson and general Montgomery; 1809, Wm. Woodley; 1810, major-general Dalrymple; 1811, Robert Gordon; 1813, major Grant; 1814, W. Bentinck; 1820, major Thistlethwayte and sir John Cameron; 1821, Harry Beard, who was in office at the period of the union of the two settlements, 1831, when sir D. B. Urban was made sole governor of British Guiana. A serious insurrection of the slaves took place on the east coast of the Demerara river in 1823, which was finally suppressed, and Mr. Smith, a missionary of the London society, condemned to death for inciting the negroes to rebellion, a sentence which was commuted to total banishment from the West Indies: Mr. Smith died in prison pending the sentence. It should be observed that the mortality of Europeans, on the early colonization of Guiana, was very great, partly owing to torrid heat acting on a moist soil and luxuriant vegetation pregnant with animal and vegetable decomposition, and partly owing to the intemperate habits of the settlers, and their non-conformity with the customs of the country and the dictates of nature. Of late years, however, as the coast became cleared, and a free circulation of air was admitted, the health of British Guiana has materially improved, and may now be considered as good as the nature of a country will permit, where an extraordinary quantity of rain falls annually. During the wet seasons (of which there are two, each lasting three months, Dec. Jan. Feb. and June, July, Aug.) the wind is

from south to west, and the rain then descends in torrents, sometimes for two or three days without intermission. At these periods our sailors say 'it only leaves off raining to commence pouring.' The dry season is exceedingly delightful; the morning twilight, commencing at four, gradually unveils a deep azure sky, over which the sun crosses cloudlessly from the ocean to the inland mountains, behind which it sets. The invigorating sea-breeze sets in at ten, giving animation to nature, and continues to blow with increasing vigour till sunset at six, when it gradually dies away. The governor, as in the old Dutch arrangement, is assisted by a council of kiezers.

MUTINY AMONGST THE BRITISH SAILORS, 1797.—The spirit of insurrection, which had been unchained in France, was fast spreading over Europe; and as the rabble in England had been in a ferment for two years, the disaffection at last spread to the seamen of the channel-fleet, at Spithead, who deprived their officers of command, and threatened their lives. On receiving an increase of pay, these returned to their duty; but under one Parker, a more formidable insurrection broke out amongst the vessels at the Nore. Very extravagant demands being now made, government proceeded to take vigorous measures; and after some time, the mutineers, ship by ship, surrendered, and many of the ringleaders were hanged. It was to encourage loyal sentiments amongst the sailors, that Charles Dibdin at this time wrote his admirable sea-songs; and so productive were they of the object the author had in view, that the government awarded him a pension.

TRINIDAD MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1797.—This isle was discovered by Columbus, 1498, and named by him in honour of the Holy Trinity. It is 90 miles long, and 50 broad, and separated from Cumana in South America by the gulf of Paria. It was found peopled by Caribs, of a mild character, and of an unusually light colour for that

race; and it was left for the Spaniards to subdue them, 1588, when those who escaped a sanguinary death were drafted off to the Hispaniola mines. Sir Walter Raleigh visited Trinidad 1595, and found the inhabitants cultivating excellent tobacco and sugar-canes. The Spaniards, to divert his attention, described to him the El-Dorado, where the rivers were full of gold-dust; but on Raleigh's return from exploring the Orinoco, he entered into a treaty with the Indians, marched with them, attacked and carried by assault the capital of San Josef, and put the garrison of 30 men to the sword. The population and trade of Trinidad had become nearly extinguished from unexplained causes by 1783, when Don Josef Chacon, a naval captain, succeeded in restoring a taste for agriculture, and encouraged all Spaniards to quit the French colonies, (now disturbed by the revolution), and repair to the island under his sway. In a brief space of time the whole face of the settlement was changed: the handsome capital of Puerta d'España usurped the place of a few fishers' wretched palm-leaved huts, and Trinidad was constituted an important dependency of the Caraccas. Sir Ralph Abercrombie succeeded in capturing the island, and constituting it a British colony, 1797. The governors have been:—1801, sir Thomas Picton; 1803, general Hislop; 1812, sir R. Woodford; 1828, sir L. Grant; 1833 sir G. Hill. Trinidad appears at a distance like an immense ridge of rocks; but on entering the gulf of Paria, a most magnificent panorama is presented to the eye of the voyager. To the east, the waters of the mighty Orinoco dispute as it were the empire of the ocean; the lofty mountains of Cumana rise in stupendous majesty in the background; and on the west appear the cape, headlands, mountains, hills, vallies and plains of Trinidad, enamelled with eternal verdure, and presenting a coup d'œil, to which the Old World affords no parallel. Port of Spain, the capital, embosom-

ed in an amphitheatre of hills, is one of the finest towns in the West Indies. The numerous buildings are of an imposing appearance, and constructed of massive cut stone. No houses are allowed to be erected of wood, or independent of a prescribed form: the streets are wide, long, shaded with trees, and laid out in parallel lines from the land to the sea, intersected, but not intercepted, by cross streets, thus catching every breeze that blows; and, as in most tropical climates, there is a delightful embowered public walk. There are several craters in the isle, and south of Cape de la Brea is a submarine volcano, which occasionally boils up, and discharges a quantity of petroleum: in the east part of the island is another, which in March and June gives detonations resembling thunder: these are succeeded by flames and smoke, and, some minutes after, pieces of bitumen, as black and brilliant as jet, are thrown on shore. But the most singular object to the stranger is the mineral pitch lake of La Brea, a mile and a half in diameter. It occupies a small peninsula, jutting two miles into the sea; and when closely examined, is found to consist of bituminous scoriæ, vitrified sand, and earth, all cemented together. The mobility of the surface is very remarkable. Where an islet, apparently solid enough, has been seen on an evening, a gulf is found on the following morning; and at another part of the lake a pitch islet has sprung up, to be in its turn adorned with the most luxuriant vegetation, and then again ingulfed. The margin of this Tartaric lake is adorned with beautiful shrubs and flowers; while tufts of wild pineapple and aloes, (pitch-loving plants), swarms of magnificent butterflies, and brilliant humming birds, enliven a scene, which would be a perfect picture of the Stygian lake without them. The asphalt of the lake melts like sealingwax, and, when mixed with grease or common pitch, forms an excellent preservative for the bottoms of ships.

The dry season in Trinidad begins with December and ends with May; the heat then increases, and is at its height by the end of June; storms commence, and augment in frequency and violence during August and September; and in October they occur almost daily, accompanied by torrents of rain. There is seldom any fall of rain during the night; but a heavy shower, without wind, usually precedes sunrise by half an hour during the season. The government is in the governor, an executive council of three, and a legislative of twelve. The *cabildo* (similar to our municipal corporations), is a court having power to raise revenues from licences granted to certain dealers, by which 10,000*l.* is yearly produced, and applied to keep the streets and market-house of Port of Spain in repair, and to pay the police. The laws are chiefly Spanish; and the titles of *alcalde*, *alguazil*, &c., are always used, in lieu of the corresponding terms in English. The vegetation of Trinidad is of the same splendid character as that found on the mainland. The forests contain the finest wood for ship-building and for ornamental purposes, amongst which the red cedar and a great variety of palms are conspicuous. The nutmeg, cinnamon, and clove have been introduced, and flourish; but the cocoa-tree (in appearance an English cherry-tree), is indigenous, not only here, but almost everywhere in the New World. Cocoa-beans were formerly used as money in Mexico, and six were equivalent to a halfpenny English. The staples of the island are sugar, cocoa, coffee, cotton, rum, and molasses; and the fruits and vegetables, pomegranates, plantains, sour-sops, bananas, cocoanuts, Java-plums, yams, grenadilloes, pines, yellow hog-plums, *mammesapoetas*, sugar and custard-apples, sea-side grapes, guavas, oranges, lemons, limes, forbidden-fruit, shadocks, Jamaica plums, bread-fruit, water-melons, cashew apples, and avocado pears. Among the most

beautiful trees of the isle is the bois immortel, a lofty umbrageous plant, with leaves of a bright yellow hue, and scarlet blossoms, growing in clusters, and shining like brilliant satin in the sunlight; while the lovely butterfly-plant, so named on account of its similitude to the insect, fluttering on its almost invisible stalk, adds beauty to every glade of this most nature-favoured spot.

THE INCOME-TAX ACT PASSED, 1799.—This was an odious tax, warranted only by the necessity of the times, which bore with great hardship upon all classes of subjects in England, but especially upon those who could least endure the pressure. It consisted of ten per cent. levied on all incomes, nominal or real; and however precarious the stipend of the party taxed, and whatever portion of it still remained in the hands of his debtors, his per centage must be paid. There can be no doubt of the impolicy of levying direct imposts of any kind, where indirect ones will answer the purpose. Times of war and of national distress of course demand extreme measures. But there is no system more unwise than that which, in ordinary periods, makes the dead weight a subject is compelled to bear too palpable; an assertion as completely true as that no public officer is so cordially hated as the tax-gatherer. Let commodities be duly taxed, and the principle be carried to its full extent; and all in a nation so well stocked with private property, and expending in the main with such generosity as the English, will contribute their fair share to the necessities of the state, and that without any one *feeling* the burthen. To abolish direct taxation should be the aim of every finance-minister; and, imposts to a proper amount being placed on articles of consumption (by which we mean not simply those eaten, drunken, and worn, but the implements and general commodities of trade and barter, be they what they may) of every kind, the burthen will exactly fall

where it ought. He who is required or wishes to consume more of one commodity than of another, pays a larger share of the tax thereon than he who consumes little or none of it, who will therefore pay little or none of the tax; and the tax will in no wise deter consumption. The only points to be carefully watched by the imposers are the adequate levying, and the due collecting of the taxes they impose—to see that there be no fraud, no withholding, no collusion between payer and collector. As to the assertion of some writers on economy, that indirect taxes fall exclusively upon landlords, it is a groundless statement. The capitalist, whenever he realizes his profit in taxed commodities, and the labourer, whenever he expends his wages on taxed luxuries, does each of them defray, out of his own proper and respective funds, the taxes which are laid upon those articles; and the landlords have no share of the burthen. Assuredly one of the happiest inventions of modern finance was that of rolling up and disguising the payment of a tax to government in the price of the commodity, as is done in the customs and excise; where the money is taken either in the public office of the government, upon the importation of the commodity, or during its first stage of manufacture, on the premises of the dealer. The consumer, in paying the price of the article, is scarcely aware that he is paying any tax, or any charge beyond the price and value of the article bought. If Dr. Johnson, who gave such a definition of the excise in his celebrated dictionary, as, ‘that it was a hateful tax, levied upon commodities, and adjudged, not by the common judges of property, but by wretches hired by those to whom excise is paid’—if that wise and good man had lived to see the real superiority of this mode of taxation, through the boards of customs and excise, above that of personal, direct, and domestic taxes, he would have entirely altered his opinion. The surveyors and as-

sessors of these household taxes, being paid in proportion to the produce of the tax, resemble the old farmers of the revenue in France; and it is the fault of well-paid commissioners of the crown if, in their contact with the privacy of families, their delegates exercise their inquisitorial powers wrongly.

MALTA CAPTURED BY THE BRITISH, 1800.—This little island, respecting the detention of which by England the war with Buonaparte was resumed after the peace of Amiens, (and whose history is given in Vol. 1. 103), is situated between Sicily and the African coast, and is the most southerly spot in the Mediterranean, and consequently in Europe. It is 17 miles long and nine broad; and Gozo, the island in its neighbourhood, and under its government, is 10 miles long and 5 broad. Malta was occupied from 1530 to 1798 by the knights of St. John and of Malta; but in the latter year it was seized by the French revolutionary troops. The invaders, however, had scarcely got possession, when the Maltese rose en masse, and blocked up the 6000 French soldiers in Valetta. In this condition they were kept more than a year; when a small detachment of British came to the aid of the Maltese, 1800, and after strengthening the blockade, forced the French garrison to capitulate. Malta has ever since formed a portion of the British empire. Mr. Cameron was the first civil commissioner, and was succeeded by Sir Alexander Ball, who died 1809; Sir Hildebrand Oakes was chief until 1813, when Sir Thomas Maitland arrived: he died 1824, and was succeeded by the Marquis of Hastings, who died 1826, and was followed by Sir Frederick Ponsonby, who died 1836, when General Bouverie succeeded. The climate of Malta is warm, and indeed almost tropical, and the island has often been severely visited by the plague. The land is low, and cannot be discerned until the mariner approaches within twenty miles of the

shore; but the country is picturesque and productive. Gozo, five miles westward, was the Gaulos of the Greeks: although fertile, and thickly inhabited, it contains no town, the inhabitants being scattered in six villages, protected by the strong fort Rabato, in the centre of the island. The surface is very agreeably diversified with hill and dale; and the shores abound in caves and rocks. There are quarries in Malta, and large quantities of stone for building and paving are exported to Constantinople; but its chief exports are its own cotton manufactures of sail-cloth, striped cloth for shirts, nankeens, &c.; and the cotton used is the growth of the island, coarse in quality. The oranges and melons of Malta are the finest of the Mediterranean, and there is a variety of other delicate fruits. Rich pasture-lands, refreshed by the regular falling of nocturnal dews, enable the Maltese to rear cattle, sheep, and goats in abundance; while poultry is plentiful, quails and other wild fowl come in myriads, and fish of various kinds is constantly to be procured.

ASSAULTS ON THE KING, 1801.—Amongst the proofs of a constantly disturbed state of the public mind, may be brought the frequent attempts upon the life of a king, who was confessedly guided uniformly by a wish to benefit his people. In 1786 one Margaret Nicholson made an attempt to stab the monarch as he alighted from his carriage; in 1796 a similar event occurred on his way home from the theatre; and in 1800 he twice narrowly escaped death in one day; in the morning by a musket-shot from one of the soldiers he was reviewing in Hyde Park, and in the evening, by Hatfield, a maniac, discharging a pistol at him in Drury-lane theatre. On all these occasions the intrepidity of the monarch was admirably evinced; and when, at the time of the council assembling to inquire into the affair of 1796, one lord was proposing one plan of detection, and another another, his

majesty, with his usual piety, interrupted their deliberations, exclaiming, 'Let us not forget, my lords, that while one is *proposing* this, and another is *supposing* that, there is One above who *disposes* all things, and whom I must not omit to thank for his mercies.' On that day, when the king returned to his palace, he took a stone out of the cuff of his coat, where it had lodged, and presenting it to the earl of Onslow, facetiously said, 'I make you a present of this, Onslow, to keep in recollection of the civilities we have met with to-day.'

GEORGIA INCORPORATED WITH RUSSIA, 1801.—This state (called rightly Gurgistan, and by the Russians Grusia), situated between the Black and Caspian seas, is part of a district, about 500 English miles in length, and 480 in breadth, bounded by those seas on the west and east, on the south by Persia and Turkey in Asia, and on the north by the mountain range of the Caucasus. The early Greeks, as we learn from the Argonautic expedition, and the Romans, from the Mithridatic wars, were acquainted with the Caucasian regions; and from the sixteenth century after Christ, the Muscovites have endeavoured to render them subject. The projects of the latter, the modern Russians, were favoured by their community of religion with the people of Georgia Proper, who constantly sought their aid against the encroachments of their Moslem neighbours. The unsuccessful attempt of the Muscovites to bring under their yoke the highlanders of the eastern Caucasus at the opening of the seventeenth century, stopped their career of conquest in that quarter till the commencement of the eighteenth; when Peter the Great, in 1724, went in person against Daghestan, and took Derbend. This expedition was followed by a treaty with Tamasp, the Persian shah, 1730, who, in consideration of the promised aid of the Muscovites against his Afghan enemies, ceded to them the provinces of

Daghestan, Ghilan, Mazanderan, Shirvan, and Asterabad. The empress Anne, however, restored the thus relinquished territories to the celebrated Nadir Shah, the successor of Tamasp, 1735. Heraclius II. brought back his state of Georgia to importance after the death of Nadir, in whose camp he had been bred; but the measure he adopted (after a long reign spent in constant wars with his neighbours) with a view to insure his country's safety, proved destructive to his dynasty. He, in 1783, declared himself a vassal of Russia; which, in return, guaranteed to him and his successors, not only the possession of his actual dominions, but even of those he might thereafter conquer. Persia was at that time in anarchy, and could not resist the desertion of her vassal; but in 1795, Aga Mohammed Khan led an army into Georgia, defeated Heraclius, burned Tiflis, and carried most of its inhabitants into captivity. Heraclius died 1798, and was succeeded by his son, George XIII., a weak prince, whose reign of two years was kept in civil war by the rebellion of his brothers; and soon after the decease of George, 1801, Georgia was declared for ever a Russian province, and the members of the regal family were carried to Moscow. The Russians, by subsequent invasions, compelled the khan of Imiretia, and the rulers of other petty states in the district generally known as Georgia (being the territory reaching, as before said, from the Black sea to the Caspian), to yield their dominions, in like manner; and the treaties of Turkmanchay, 1828, and Adrianople, 1829, have confirmed the arrangement. Georgia, as a whole, is mountainous, with extensive plains; and the vast difference of temperature between the high and low lands occasions the growth of plants and the production of animals common both to warm and cold climates. The people of Georgia Proper were converted to Christianity by Armenian missionaries early in

the fifth century. IMIRETIA became a separate state, when Alexander I., king of Georgia, divided his dominions, 1424, among his three sons. He gave Imiretia to one of them; but the fortunes of this little country, which fell under the dependance of Turkey, 1576, present too little interest to need mention. It is a fertile territory; and being protected from the northern winds by the Caucasus, its climate is mild, and in many parts the trees blossom and produce fruit twice in the year. The population is 100,000; the language is akin to the Georgian; and the religion is mostly Armenian. The lower classes are very laborious, and remarkable for their physical strength. The Georgian tongue itself is like the Armenian, and evidently springs from it; but though it has possessed an alphabet fourteen centuries, it has yet no definite rules, no constructed grammar. The kings of Georgia have at times endeavoured to remedy this defect; but all their encouragement of literature has produced nothing beyond a Georgian dictionary. The population of Georgia Proper is 226,000 males; and the Russian emperor, on amalgamating the country with his own, respected the class divisions of the state. These were four: the *tavadis*, or high nobles, literally 'heads'; the *asnauris*, or nobles; the *mokalaks*, or citizens; and the *glekhs*, or peasants; and the *tavadis* are now styled princes, and the *asnauris* nobles, both having the privileges of the Russian nobility, and the same right to possess serfs. The ecclesiastical affairs of the Armenian church of Georgia are directed by their patriarch, who resides at Echmiadzin; and those of the Georgian (Russian) church by the catholicos, or metropolitan of Georgia. The Moslems have a moostend, who is acknowledged by the Russians as their religious chief. Tiflis is the ancient Georgian capital, wherein are a college for the Georgian clergy, and a large Armenian school; and the town is the seat of government

for all the Caucasian provinces of Russia. The produce of the Caucasian countries consists of wine, brandy, silk, cotton, rice, and madder. The cotton is badly cultivated, or it might rival the best productions. The mountains are known to be rich in minerals, but are very little worked; and it may be said, without exaggeration, that were a nation, such as the English, with all its acquired scientific knowledge, in possession of the Caucasian country, it would soon be rendered the paradise of the globe.

CIRCASSIA, part of the Caucasian district, occupies the northern declivity of Mount Caucasus, and comprehends the whole of that tract from the Black sea to the Caspian. The whole country is a succession of mountain ranges; and the people, who are tributaries of Russia, have no towns, their habits being opposed to the concentration of a great number of houses on one spot. They live in small villages, the site of which is often changed; and while they very negligently raise their vegetable food, they sedulously attend to the breeding of cattle and horses, of which latter they are remarkably vain, keeping their genealogies like the Bedouins—like the British. The Circassians (called also Kabardians, from one of their provinces,) are Moslems in faith, and consist of eleven tribes, independent of each other, and governed, on the feudal plan, by their own hereditary princes and nobles. Their persons are proverbially handsome; and it is from one or two of their tribes, and from the Georgians, that the Mamluks of Egypt derived their origin.

THE PEACE OF AMIENS, 1802,—which lasted but a complete year, was the only compact entered into with Buonaparte by Great Britain. It was a peace to which all the tory party objected, and which the whigs declared they were not proud of; and its termination appeared to give general satisfaction to the country. One curious feature should be no-

ticed in connexion with the usual popular rejoicings observed in the metropolis on the signing of the treaty. A general illumination being ordered, the high tories put up *rush-lights* in their windows; while 'the genuine lovers of freedom' adopted the best means to give brilliancy to their edifices. William Cobbett, the newly-become radical, among the latter, though living in an obscure street and in lodgings, made so luminous a display, that a vast mob kept about his house all night, uttering shouts, notwithstanding his wife was in a dying state—'uxor cara, carior libertas' being the 'patriot's' motto.

DESPARD'S CONSPIRACY, 1803.—In the beginning of this year, a plot was discovered to assassinate the king, and establish a revolutionary government. Colonel Despard, who had been regarded as a meritorious officer, was the ostensible head of the conspiracy; and he and six men in the lowest ranks of life, were convicted of high treason, and executed on Kennington common. In July of the same year, an insurrection, said to have been connected with Despard's disappointed party, broke out also in Dublin; when lord Kilwarden, chief justice of the king's bench, with his nephew, Mr. Wolfe, were dragged from his lordship's carriage, and put to death, before the rioters could be dispersed. Edward Marcus Despard, born in Ireland, served in the British army in the American war, and in 1779 defended Jamaica, as an officer of engineers. He next assisted in the capture of the Spanish settlements on the Mosquito shore; and the territory being given up to the English at the peace of 1783, Despard was appointed its commander and superintendent. In 1786 he was superseded and sent to Europe, on account of some disputes in the colony; and, though bringing with him very honourable testimonials as to conduct, his applications to government for redress, and for the payment of sums which he claimed as

due to him, were unavailing. This soured his temper, and led to his crime. The scheme he proposed, however, was so ridiculously arranged, and his means were so utterly inadequate to the success of the plot, that many considered him deranged. Others, with less wisdom, ascribed the affair to the machinations of Buonaparte, who had just declared war against England.

RESTORATION OF THE JESUITS, 1803.—This society had been suppressed thirty years, when pope Pius VII., at the solicitation of various sovereigns, who, alarmed at the convulsions which agitated the world, imagined that had the Order of Jesuits continued, it might have proved a powerful means of maintaining tranquillity, issued briefs for its reinstitution, 1803; and on his own reinstatement, 1814, the same pope gave back to it the house of the Gesù, and subsequently the Roman college, in the capitol.

DEATH OF COLONEL MONTGOMERY.—This was in a duel at Chalk Farm, 1803, Captain Macnamara being his adversary. As both were men of good connexion, the unhappy affair was matter of great public interest at the time.

REVOLT OF ST. DOMINGO, 1803.—Hispaniola, or Little Spain, also called St. Domingo, and Hayti, is one of the Great Antilles, or larger islands of the West Indies, and was discovered by Columbus, and named by him Hispaniola, in his first voyage. Soon after, it was colonised by the Spaniards; and they remained in quiet possession until 1697, when the French seized a full third of the isle. Hispaniola continued thus shared until the French revolution; during which convulsion the national convention of Paris ventured, in 1794, to emancipate the negro slaves of the Gallic portion of the colony. The consequence was a rise of the slaves; who, resolved on expelling the whites, made Toussaint L'Ouverture and Jean D'Essalines, both born in slavery, and persons of colour, their leaders, and

attacked the French force of general Leclerc. They were, however, compelled to make terms; but Toussaint being thereon treacherously seized, and carried off to France, D'Essalines had influence enough to raise the blacks once more. Rochambeau had now succeeded Leclerc in command; and, seeing the determined spirit of the negroes, he surrendered to the British, whose fleet was investing the island, and thus escaped the vengeance of the revolters. The French part of the island was hereupon solemnly declared separated for ever from the dominion of France, its original name of Hayti (which it had before the time of Columbus) was restored, and D'Essalines was appointed governor of it for life. In 1804 the same person declared himself emperor of Hayti; but in 1806 he was assassinated by a party under Christophe, a relation of Toussaint, and the French portion of the isle was then divided into two states. The northern coast was formed into a *negro* republic under Christophe, a black, who, in 1811, assumed the style of 'emperor;' while the plains about the Bay of Gonaves were constituted a *mulatto* commonwealth under one Pétion, a mulatto. Continual wars were waged by these rival states. After the death of Pétion, 1813, one Boyer succeeded as mulatto president; and when Christophe, on the breaking out of an insurrection in his state, 1820, had killed himself, Boyer brought the negro kingdom also under his authority. Meanwhile the Spanish part of Hispaniola had been ceded to France, 1795, but was re-occupied by the Spaniards, 1808; and in 1809 it declared itself independent of Spain, and remained in an unsettled condition until Boyer contrived to reduce it, 1822, whereby he brought the whole island under one government. France recognised the independence of Hayti, as the integral country was now styled, 1825. The constitution, which dates 1816, is a representative republic, under a president, who is elected for life, and

who is aided by a senate and house of deputies. The pope's supremacy is abjured: and though the religion professed is Romish, there is no order of clergy higher than the priesthood, and there are no tithes. As the president can prompt the choice of any representative, he is but a king under that name. The staple commodities of St. Domingo (the name by which the island is, after all, best known) are coffee, cotton, cocoa, tobacco, logwood, mahogany, and beeswax. The isle is regarded as the most fertile one of the West Indies. It has many mountain ranges; and near the centre is a mountain-knot called Cibao, whose highest summits do not fall short of 8000 feet. It is 360 miles long, and about four times as large as Jamaica. Port-au-Prince, the capital and seat of government, is situated between the large plain of Cul de Sac and a more narrow one extending along the southern shores of the Bay of Gonaves, both of which are wonderfully fertile, but very illy cultivated.

THE FRENCH CONSCRIPTION, 1804. —The account given by a conscript himself, Giovanni Finati, will best illustrate the cruelty of Napoleon's system to raise soldiers. 'Italy had fallen into the power of the French, 1804; for, though it was still nominally independent, and retained the form of a government of its own, yet it was in fact become no better than a province. The people felt most acutely both the weight and humiliation of this foreign yoke, yet at the same time saw that they had no power of shaking it off. In no point did it press upon them more heavily than in the continual conscriptions; for no sooner was a son grown to be of an age to assist his parents, and to contribute to their support, than he was forcibly torn from them, and sent off into the most distant countries at the will of Buonaparte, who now reigned as master over almost all Europe. My father and mother, who were people of domestic and devout habits, received with horror

the intelligence that my name appeared in the list of conscripts. No representation was left untried with those in authority; but none was sufficient to get me exempted. At last the utmost that could be obtained was, that I might be permitted to provide a substitute; but even to this was annexed the condition, that, in case of his desertion, I must again come forward, and make good his place in the ranks. The substitute was accordingly provided, and marched off so soon as required by his regiment; and I remained quietly in the bosom of my family. Five months had soon passed; and we were now far advanced in the year 1805, when the news came that the substitute had deserted. This was a terrible blow to my poor father, who looked upon me from that moment as lost to him for ever. No sooner was the fact certified to the military commandant, than the regular warrant under the conscription was issued against me, and the most diligent search for me commenced. But I was nowhere to be found; for, feeling an abhorrence to this compulsory mode of service, I had, by my father's wish and connivance, on the very first intimation, withdrawn secretly from the house, and was lurking in different hiding-places of the neighbourhood both day and night. When the government saw that all attempts to find me were ineffectual, measures were taken to compel my family by persecution to deliver me up. The first method resorted to was the quartering of troops upon our house, whose number was augmented every day, for the purpose of completely exhausting and reducing it to poverty. But my father's firmness was such, that he submitted to this without a murmur, thinking that the government might be wearied out, and would perhaps desist when the means were found to fail of their object; but he was mistaken, and exasperation was the only consequence. Accordingly, my father and my younger brother were seized, and thrown into

prison, where they were debarred from all communication; the property was confiscated; and I thus saw the utter ruin of my whole family inevitable, if I did not, of my own act, go and deliver myself up to the authorities.—I therefore made up my mind to a voluntary surrender.'

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND COLONIZED, 1804, by the English.—This island is at the south-east of New Holland, 210 miles long, and 150 broad, nearly the size of Ireland. It was first called Tasmania, from its discoverer, Tasman, 1642; but received its present name in honour of the governor of the Dutch possessions in India, Antony Van Diemen. In 1803, an attempt was made to settle a colony of convicts from New South Wales, but fruitlessly; in 1804, however, captain Collins took possession of the parts about the mouth of the Derwent in the name of George III., and commenced Hobart Town, the present capital, so called in honour of lord Hobart, then colonial secretary. The captain had 400 convicts with him, and was made lieutenant-governor, with orders to act under the governor of New South Wales. That system still continues; but in 1825 it was agreed that in local matters the governor of Van Diemen's Land should act independently, with an executive and legislative council. The general face of this island is mountainous, not in ranges, but in isolated peaks, varied by lofty tablelands, and extensive fertile valleys and plains. The bays and anchorage are excellent; and Hobart Town is a very neatly-built place, standing on a rising ground, next to which in rank is Launceston, distant from the capital 121 miles. When first discovered, Van Diemen's land was densely peopled by a dark race of inhabitants, differing somewhat from the aborigines of the adjacent coast of New Holland, in the more negro-like cast of countenance, woolly hair, and nearly black colour. Contests, however, soon began between the white and black races, which continued,

with occasional interruptions, until 1835, when the blacks were hemmed into one corner of the island, and finally removed, under the protection of government, to Flinder's Island, in the adjoining straits. Their numbers have since very rapidly diminished, through smallpox, famine, and the retaliation of the colonists for the murders of their relations and friends. The principal exports of the colony are wool, whale and seal oil, whale-bone, and bark, to England; and provision and live-stock to the neighbouring colonies. There are several banks, and a fair amount of specie: manufactures of every sort are on the increase, and the rate of labourers' wages is more than adequate to the support of the artisan and his family. Port Arthur is now the penal settlement of the island. It is situated at the extremity of a point called Tasman's Peninsula; the neck of which is guarded by a military detachment, who have numerous fierce dogs to apprise them of the approach of run-aways. To Port Arthur the *educated* convicts of Great Britain are sent: boy convicts are also ordered there, and placed under teachers qualified to make them useful in various trades. Colonial convicts, and prisoners re-convicted in the settled districts, are likewise removed thither; where they are employed in felling, sawing, cutting, splitting, and loading timber, in ship-building, constructing wharfs, prisons, barracks, &c., in shoemaking, tanning, in the coal-mines, and various ways. On landing, they are stripped, and clothed in tanned sheep-skin; and the hours of labour are from sunrise to sunset. To Port Arthur and Norfolk Island alone, convicts of all grades are, by recent enactments, at present consigned.

THE MODERN ROSCIUS.—William Betty, the son of Irish parents, was advertised to appear, aged only 13, on the boards of Covent-garden theatre, December 1, 1804, in the character of Achmet in Dr. Brown's play of *Barbarossa*. As early as one o'clock

in the afternoon, the crowd began to assemble in the piazzas of that house; and at the proper hour, every popular art was practised to gain admission. The utmost danger was apprehended, because those who had ascertained that it was quite impossible for them to get in, could not, for the dreadful pressure behind them, get back. At length they themselves called for the soldiers, who, with their usual temper and firmness, soon cleared the fronts of the entrances, and then posting themselves properly, lined the passages, permitting any one to return, but none to enter. The pit was half filled by gentlemen who had sprung down from the boxes. The actual occupiers of the boxes by force, retained them against the owners of the places and the police officers who attempted to be their ushers. All that the gallantry of the men would permit was allowing ladies in some cases to occupy the front seat, while the remainder of the box was held by the strongest of all rights, possession. Mr. Charles Kemble came forward with an address for the occasion; but the house would not have listened to the address of even Dr. Johnson, unless

or Betty himself had delivered the play, therefore, proceeded through the first act, with a tempest rather stronger than that which announces the first appearance of a pantomime. At length Barbarossa ordered Achmet to be brought before him; 'attention held them mute; not even a whisper could be heard; till the highly-honoured object of their curiosity stood in their presence. In reply to the thunder of applause that ensued, the youth bowed respectfully, but with self-possession, and immediately turned himself to the business of the stage. With a voice considerably deeper than that of his age, he began his part, and supported it to the close of the piece, with that accuracy of emphasis and manner, and that attention to stage routine, which belong to practised manhood. There were grievous vul-

garisms and harshnesses in his dialect: no aspirate, a want of elegance in sustaining the *r* at the end of words when followed by a vowel ('hair ever loose' he would render *air-rever loose*), and a provincial coarseness marked his expression of the vowels *e* and *i* when they occurred in the last syllable of a word. Thus ruin, cruel, evil, given, he pronounced ru-un, cru-ul, evul, givun. 'The wonder was (says Mr. Boaden) how any boy, who had just completed his thirteenth year, could catch passion, meaning, cadence, action, expression, and the discipline of the stage, in ten very different and arduous characters, so as to give the kind of pleasure in them that needed no indulgence, and which, from that very circumstance, heightened satisfaction into enthusiasm.' For his first three nights, the young aspirant received the handsome sum of 150 guineas; but as the receipts of the house were found to average 600*l.* per night, he had for the twenty-five following ones, 100 guineas for each appearance. In twenty-eight nights the house took no less than 17,210*l.* 10*s.*, of which 2785*l.* 10*s.* was his very large portion! This was independent of his benefits, which were all free (that is, the lessee paid all the actors, and for the lights, &c.) of which he had four in the season, each producing, with presents, at least 1000 guineas clear. Meanwhile patrons and patronesses arose to him in every quarter. He might have chosen among titled dames the carriage he would honour with his person. The arts strove to perpetuate his countenance and his figure; Opie painted him on the Grampian Hills, as the shepherd Norval; Northcote exhibited him in a Vandeyck costume, retiring from the altar of Shakspeare, as having borne thence (not stolen) 'Jove's authentic fire.' Very wisely, his parents took advantage of the tide while it served, and secured an ample fortune for their son's maturity, who became eventually a member of one of England's two universities. 'Young Betty

(write the authors of the *Rejected Addresses*, edit. 1833) may now be seen about town—a portly personage, aged about forty, clad in a furred and frogged surtout, and probably muttering to himself (as he has been at college) 'O! mihi præteritos!' The philosopher, with less fun than the witty brothers Smith, regards the success of 'the modern Roscius' only as one of the indubitable proofs of the British drama having been on the decline so early as the opening of the present century. As it has now virtually expired, we may be allowed to point out that the public taste, having come to need every excitement to appetite, partly through the overstrained productions of novelists and romance-writers, and partly through the narratives of bloody tragedies actually enacted during the revolution in a neighbouring country, could only now be satisfied with displays out of the ordinary course, such as the precocity of young Betty afforded, and which was soon followed by the more degrading substitution of elephants and other brute beasts for the legitimate histrionic wearers of the buskin and the sock.

NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE ANNOUNCED HIMSELF EMPEROR OF FRANCE, and king of Italy, May 18th, 1804, as in the French history.

THE EMPIRE OF GERMANY LIMITED TO AUSTRIA, 1806, by the compelled abdication (through Buonaparte) of Francis II., emperor of Germany and of the West, and king of Rome—titles henceforth abandoned.—(See *Germanic Confederation*).

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE TAKEN, 1806, by the British, under sir David Baird and sir Home Popham, as recorded in vol. ii. 266. Out of the Dutch possession of this colony arose many superstitions connected with navigating the seas between Europe and the Cape; and the sailors' *memento mori*, called 'The Flying Dutchman,' or 'Ship of Dooni,' is one of the most striking. Vanderdecken was a Dutch captain, to whom was intrusted the conveyance of the

mails from the mother-country to the settlement. In one of his voyages, when off 'Table-bay, he encountered a furious gale of wind, and for a long time was borne before it; during which all his attempts to enter the harbour were fruitless. His mate, an experienced seaman, is said to have hereupon counselled his giving over so vain a struggle with the elements, and to have received in consequence the impious reply, 'that he would enter the bay, if he beat about it till the day of judgment!'—which awful speech instantly brought upon the captain the just punishment of heaven, he being consigned through all time to beat about the bay, without ever having the power to enter it. Modern seamen, on fancying they see 'the flying Dutchman' ahead, or, in other words, seeing those singular reflections of their own vessel, which an imperfect light, and a foggy atmosphere occasion, regard the affair as an omen of approaching danger, either to themselves or their ship; and vain is often every attempt to reason them out of the delusion.

THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE ABOLISHED, 1807, by act of parliament, through the long-continued exertions of Mr. Wilberforce. It has been shown, in the memoir of the excellent prelate Las Casas (p. 70, vol. ii.), that the Spaniards first originated the traffic in Hispaniola; and their example was soon followed by the Portuguese, Dutch, and English. The commerce was long cherished by our government, as a source of national and colonial wealth; but at length a party, chiefly composed of dissenters, and of that portion of the church of England styling itself 'evangelical,' undertook a species of crusade against it; and roused the general attention by denouncing it as both unchristian, and in opposition to the rights of mankind. In a state of nature, it was alleged, no man has a right to seize upon his fellow, and compel him to labour for his subsistence; and as independent communities stand to each other in the same rela-

tion that individuals do in a state of nature, so cannot there exist (said the abolitionists) a right in one state to carry off by force, or entice by fraud, the subjects of any other community, for the purpose of reducing them to servitude. The real facts were, in the main, these. Our West India colonies required labourers who could bear the climate; Europeans, even with high pay, underwent the toil with difficulty; many of the savage nations of Africa were known to barter their children for mere baubles; and worthless sea-captains, little better than pirates, taking advantage of the necessity of the one side, and of the brutality of the other, established a trade in human flesh. Taken in the aggregate, the conduct of the slave-masters towards their dependants was mild and merciful; and it is a fact that, in the regular supply of the necessaries of life, the Africans were better off in their enslaved, than in their natural state; while there could be no security of life in countries where, on all occasions of public rejoicing, human blood is freely shed. (See *Mission to Ashantee*.)

The two chief questions involved in the abolition, are the moral right of one set of men to condemn to slavery another portion of their race, without the plea of injury received from such portion; and the fitting moment for carrying into effect such abolition. As to the first of these points, conscience and philosophy alike, looking on the world as it is—observing the end for which society was created, the form into which it has been cast, and the laws which are necessary for its maintenance—refuse to countenance any dangerous notions of abstract rights, as independent of human or divine law. Unreal in themselves, we yet know well enough what kind of conclusions the 'rights of man' are capable of supporting. If every man has an absolute indefeasible right to dispose of his own labour (as the extreme abolitionists declare), why not to freedom from

all the other restraints of external law—why not to an equal share of all those other means of happiness and wellbeing—earth and water, beast, bird, and fish, that nature produced for the use of all? Those who are not content to rest the origin of their rights on express divine law, and on constituted human authority, will find it very difficult to obtain them short of revolutionary plunder and bloodshed. Slavery is certainly not annulled by authoritative revelation. That it is in its degree contrary to the genius of Christianity, we freely allow. The Christian Church has always struggled against it, as odious in fact, but has never denounced it as iniquitous in principle. The Scriptures directly recognise the relation as lawful; directing not only bond-slaves (called ‘servants’ in our translation) to be zealous in the service of their masters, but masters (not to emancipate but) to be just and fair to their bond-slaves. The illustrious St. Paul thus writes to the Ephesians, vi. 5, ‘Servants (οἱ δούλοι—*doulos* meaning alone *bond-slave*, one purchased with money, and over whose life the purchaser had as much right, by the then laws of society, as he had over that of his cattle) be obedient to them that are your masters according to the flesh, with fear and trembling, in singleness of your heart, as unto Christ; not with eyeservice, as men-pleasers, but as the servants of Christ, doing the will of God from the heart; with good will doing service, as to the Lord, and not to men: knowing that whatsoever good thing any man doeth, the same shall he receive of the Lord, whether he be bond or free.’ How opposed, therefore, to the apostolical injunction, has been the preaching of Baptist and other dissenting missionaries to the black West India population; it having by every means urged the slaves first to resist, and, if in return resisted, then to rise upon their masters.

England is alleged to have affirmed as a principle, ‘that every man has a right to freedom, which municipal

regulations can no more abrogate, than they could a primary law of morality; and that law can give no man a property in another;’ but she has affirmed no such thing. She has said, both well and wisely, that within her own jurisdiction she will take cognizance of no such property, or of the rights which arise therefrom; but she has never pronounced, nor has she the right to pronounce, on other nations who still maintain their validity. She has enunciated a principle for the regulation of her own territories, salutary for herself in particular; salutary, we believe, for the world in general; but not *therefore* fit for the adoption of every nation in particular. The supreme power in England has given to the people the privileges of representation and trial by jury; but we do not *therefore* declare every other government iniquitous which withholds these rights—much less justify insurrection and bloodshed to obtain them. As to the second point, the fitting moment of abolition, (the measure being once determined on), we cannot but regard the selection of the abolitionists as a fearful experiment; and can only pray that good may be the issue. Neither were the land-owners nor the slaves in a state of readiness for the change; and we entirely coincide in opinion with the Honourable sir Edward Cust, who thus sensibly writes, after a four months’ journey through the Windward colonies, 1841. ‘Upon a calm review of all the impressions left on my mind, I am forced to the conviction, that a whole generation must pass away before the negro, in a state of freedom, will attain, in his social condition, to any thing approaching the civilization of the European peasant, or will work with any thing like the constancy and steadiness that is essential to the profitable culture of the land. Nor will this be surprising to a reflecting mind; for if it take three generations to make a gentleman, how much more must it require to make a barbarian civilized? The endeavour to do this by steam power

and stove heat only produces an unnatural growth, in which the vices of the European and African united, are more sensibly perceived than the better qualities of either. The simplicity of uncivilized life is sharpened into cunning by 'a little learning;' the contentedness of an humble condition is roused into a restlessness, which can only not be dignified by the name of ambition, because there is not sufficient knowledge of the world to know what to aim at; whilst the sudden elevation in their condition, altogether prevents them from being satisfied with continuing as they are.'

The statement made by lord Stanley, the colonial secretary, in parliament, March 1842, coming as it does from one originally friendly to the sudden emancipation-plan, may be thought at once to settle the question, as to the propriety or impropriety of the measure. 'The planters,' said his lordship, 'have suffered a very serious and ruinous expense in the cultivation of their estates (since the abolition), from the abstraction of labour, in consequence of the application of the labourers to *their own* farms, and from their having become possessors of property instead of mere cultivators of the soil. The result is, that the planters are compelled to pay exorbitant and enormous wages; and from the information I continue to receive, unless some remedy can be provided, it will be impossible for the owners to continue cultivating their estates.' The facts which elicited this unexpected declaration of an abolitionist are, that on 62 sugar estates, the actual loss to the proprietors, from January 1 to October 31, 1841, was 874,000 guilders, and to December 31, 983,000—the whole of this last sum on an outlay of only 1,295,000; so that three-quarters of the money expended in the cultivation of his estate by the planter was lost. This is, of course, simple ruin; and it is leading, with marvellous rapidity, (in spite of the 20 millions

compensation granted the planters), to its natural result—one which was foreseen by sensible persons on the spot long ago—the *transfer of all the property of our West India islands into the hands of the coloured population*. For instance, thus writes governor Light, of Demerara, to the secretary, with feelings of pride and satisfaction. 'I cannot but record the enterprise of the lately emancipated classes, six of whom have bought an *abandoned sugar estate*, named Northbrook, for which they paid 30,000 guilders (2000*l.* odd);' and he then mentions other like purchases for 4000*l.*, 11,000*l.*, and 16,000*l.* The governor congratulates himself at these purchases, as a proof that the 'blessings' of emancipation have shown themselves thus early in Demerara; and with some *naïveté* observes, 'when it is considered that the greatest part of the money (of these purchases) has been earned *since emancipation*, it may be concluded that the labourers have been fairly treated.' Pretty fairly certainly; and it will occur to some persons to ask whether the masters have been treated with as much fairness, by a sudden change of relations, which compels them to hand over their entire property, on the most ruinous terms, to a race that has obtained its actual purchase-money out of their pockets? In conclusion, it should be observed, that the cruelties of slave-stealing have been multiplied tenfold by 'the right of search;' the power allowed to vessels of boarding others to ascertain if they are carrying slaves, having occasioned the owners of slave-ships to add to their iniquity by packing living flesh and blood into holes and corners, as if dead stock, to avoid detection. Thousands of negroes are yearly sacrificed in the passage by this practice. (*See Abolition of Negro Slavery, 1834.*)

HELIGOLAND A BRITISH POSSESSION, 1807.—This very small isle, situated twenty-four miles from the mouth of the Elbe in the north sea,

is only a mile in length, and not three in circumference. It is of considerable importance to vessels bound to the Elbe, Weser, &c., not only because its church and lighthouse form an admirable beacon, but ships may there be supplied with experienced pilots. It was conquered from the duke of Sleswick by the Danes 1714, from them taken by the English 1807, and in 1817 formally ceded to Great Britain. The inhabitants are of Frisian origin, but mostly use the German language. The climate of the isle is mild, resembling that of the midland countries of Europe, and the air is pure and salubrious; whence Heligoland has been much frequented by foreigners, for the sake of its very efficacious baths, erected 1826. There is a governor with 500*l.*, and the whole expense for salaries, including his, does not reach 1000*l.* There are no manufactures and no horses; and recently there were only six horned cattle, 150 sheep, and four goats on the island. There is a good fishery, however, for haddocks and lobsters.

THE PENINSULAR WAR, 1808.—The Portuguese nation having solicited the aid of the English against their French invaders, sir Arthur Wellesley, son of the earl of Mornington, who had commenced his military career in India, was sent to oppose the force under Junot. Sir Arthur, in the East, had administered the civil affairs of an extensive territory, in such a manner as both to meet the approbation of his superiors, and to give satisfaction to those under his government. He had brought difficult negotiations to a successful termination, and had led numerous armies to brilliant and decisive victories. On his return to Europe, however, no higher military station opened to him, owing to the junior rank he still held amongst general officers, than the command of a single brigade on home service; but some prospect of employment more suitable to his enterprising spirit seemed to present itself, 1805. A body of troops being then sent to

Germany, his brigade was included in it; but the overthrow of the Austrian and Russian armies at Austerlitz, rendered abortive this attempt of the British government to take part in the military operations of the continent. Another expedition was fitted out 1807, destined to act against Copenhagen; and on that occasion sir Arthur had the command of a division. His ability and activity were here attended with their customary success; and after having defeated the force collected by the enemy to disturb the operations of the siege, he was employed by lord Cathcart to settle the terms of capitulation with the Danish governor. From this military service he returned to discharge the office of chief secretary for Ireland; and he was fulfilling the duties of that situation, when he received a letter from the duke of York, announcing his appointment to the chief command of a body of troops destined for Portugal; an appointment that opened the way to achievements which have immortalized his name. Sir Arthur landed in Mondego bay, August 1, 1808, and soon commenced active operations. After a slight affair at Rolica, a severe battle was fought at Vimiera, which terminated in a complete defeat of the French, with the loss of 3000 men. On the day succeeding the victory, sir Hew Dalrymple arrived from Gibraltar to take his post of commander-in-chief, and censured sir Arthur, who was only second in command, for acting without his orders; he also immediately agreed with Junot for a cessation of hostilities, and signed a convention at Cintra, by the provisions of which the French were, instead of being made prisoners of war, to be transported to France, at the cost of the English nation, laden as they were with the property of the spoliated Portuguese. It was not long before a formal annunciation of king George's disapprobation was forwarded to sir Hew; and a court of inquiry was instituted, but without any particular result. It was during the in-

vestment of Saragossa by the French in 1808, when the place was defended by the Spaniards under the brave general Palafox, that a young woman, named Augustina, materially tended, by her heroic exertions, to damp the ardour of the enemy. Though made prisoner, she escaped from the hospital to which a fever had confined her, and, upon rejoining the Spanish army, was raised to military rank in the artillery. Sir John Moore was then sent to the Peninsula, in full command of the British army; and in November he had reached Salamanca, where he was informed that the forces of the patriots had been recently routed by the French. To retreat, therefore, was sir John's only course; but the hostility of the villagers in those parts, and the coldness of the season, brought great distress upon his devoted army, as it worked its way to the sea, through more than 250 miles of mountain country. On the 11th of January, 1809, it reached Corunna, and on the 16th commenced its embarkation on board the transports brought thither for the purpose. The French, however, under marshal Soult, having advanced upon the town before the main body of the forces had taken ship, sir John determined to give them battle; and in the early part of the contest received his death-wound. General Hope maintained the action until the complete discomfiture of the enemy; so that the embarkation was effected in the following night; but the British lost in this unfortunate expedition 6000 men, and all its ammunition and stores. Soult now advanced upon and took Oporto; but the opportune return of sir Arthur Wellesley from England induced that general to relinquish his acquisition, and retreat to Madrid. The defeat of Cuesta, the Spanish leader, in Estremadura, by the French, caused sir Arthur to give up the pursuit of Soult; and in July, 1809, in conjunction with Cuesta, he gained a victory over the enemy at Talavera.

On November 19, 1809, the Spanish army of Andalusia, about 50,000 strong, commanded by general Areizaga, advanced to Ocaña (pronounced *Okarnya*), and threatened Madrid; which was occupied by the French. The French, under marshal Soult, attacked the Spaniards, who fought with great courage, especially the infantry, and at first repulsed the enemy; but after three hours of struggle, the French succeeded in breaking the Spanish line, which dispersed in the greatest confusion, leaving all their cannon and baggage, and one half of their men killed or prisoners. Areizaga hurried away with the remainder of his army towards the Sierra Morena. The battle of Ocaña was a most disastrous event to the Spanish cause; and an incident connected with it generated a ferocious spirit, which, in every subsequent conflict between Spaniard and Frenchman, and unhappily between Spaniard and Spaniard, almost to the present hour, has painfully distinguished Peninsular warfare. After the battle, a division, consisting mainly of Poles, (who had, on account of the failure of their revolutionary schemes at home, been expelled their country, and for bread had taken pay in the levelling ranks of the French), was charged to escort to Burgos the prisoners, amounting, according to some accounts, to 30,000 men. The road from Ocaña to Burgos is nearly due north, across the Tajo (Tagus) through Madrid (the site of the Roman Mantua Carpentana). Segovia, Aranda del Duero, and Lerma; but the Poles, on reaching the open country above Madrid, turned off towards Alcalá de Henares, and there set upon and slaughtered above 16,000 of their prisoners in cold blood! The whole would have been butchered, but for the interference of the few French in the division, who gave their oaths to the Poles to keep them in safe custody. So atrocious a proceeding having reached the ears of Merino,

(the commander of one of those guerilla parties, which continually hung upon the skirts of the French armies, attacked their rear-guards, cut off their convoys and despatches, and contributed, in no small degree, to the final expulsion of the invaders from the Peninsula,) he, clergyman as he was, (a man of good family and fortune, who had turned soldier on being deprived of his estates and living by the ravages of the French, supporting at his own cost a troop of horsemen), vowed he would have the life of a Pole for every hair of the head of the Spaniards so barbarously murdered. The fact of his troops keeping constantly close, either in the rear or on either side of the Polish division, as it proceeded from Segovia to Aranda, becoming known to the latter, various stratagems were adopted to seize the cura Merino's person; a matter considered not difficult, since he never bivouacked with his troop, but, departing to a distance from it with a single orderly, and sometimes quite alone, reposed under some trees, with his horse's body for a pillow. At length some threats being liberally dealt by the Poles to the villagers along the Duero, of burning their cottages if they did not discover to them the cura, a young peasant, named Julian, holdly offered to conduct their whole body to where he was; and though warned, that if he deceived them, his life should instantly be sacrificed, he accepted their terms, and at midnight, being provided with a horse, and placed between two officers, led the way across a heath, in the direction of a pine wood, where he alleged the cura was reposing. The night was so dark, that not an object could be discerned further off than 15 or 20 paces. The head of the column had arrived at about that distance from the first pine-trees, when a strong voice challenged with a 'Que vive?' 'La France,' answered the French colonel, laying his hand on one of his holster pistols. 'Fuego,' commanded

the same voice as before. The word was illuminated by the simultaneous flash of 500 muskets; the echoes of the report running round the mountains, and at length dying away in the distance. The two front ranks of the French infantry fell almost to a man. At the same instant, the right flank was charged by a squadron of cavalry, and the whole cavalry thrown into inextricable confusion. A torch, which had been kept concealed by the Spaniards, was produced, and an hundred others were immediately lighted at it. By their glare might be seen the whole of Merino's forces quietly hemming in the devoted little band, which, already entirely broken by the volley and the subsequent charge of the hussars, was in no state to contend with the far superior forces brought against it. Those who attempted to resist, and among them was the colonel, who had been wounded, but not killed by the first discharge, were instantly despatched. The remainder, nearly 700 men, surrendered; and their arms and the horses of the cavalry having been taken from them, they were marched down to the corral (the place where guerilla horses are foddered), into which they were driven pell-mell, like a flock of sheep into the slaughter-house, the entrance of the building being then, by Merino's order, blocked up with bushes, branches, and trunks of trees, which the Spaniards brought for the purpose. The terrible intention of this proceeding soon became apparent. A large stack of firewood, which the peasants had built up near the shed, was by the cura's orders distributed around it. To this and the branches was added straw; of which a considerable quantity had been brought for the horses. Torches were then applied in fifty different places; and in an instant the corral was in flames! Then commenced one of the most horrible scenes ever witnessed or described. The 700 unfortunate Poles and Frenchmen, who, if they had not expected quarter, had by no means an-

anticipated the frightful nature of the death reserved for them, uttered frantic yells when they became aware of their dreadful situation, when they saw the flames rising, and heard the pine planks of which the building was composed, crackling and splitting in every direction around them. They made desperate efforts to break out of their burning prison; but even when, aided by the devouring element, they succeeded in making a breach, on every side was a wall of fire, and beyond that the naked sabres and fixed bayonets of the guerrillas, by which those who rushed out, scorched and blackened, were thrust back again into the furnace. In a few minutes the roof fell in; and the dry fern and litter which was in great abundance on the floor of the stable becoming ignited, the heat was so violent, that the Spaniards themselves were obliged to retire to some distance. The beams and planks of which the shed was built now yielded inwards to the pressure of the faggots piled against them; the flames spread rapidly, and reached those of the wretched victims who had crowded together in the centre of the corral, to avoid, as long as possible, their inevitable doom; and to their now agonizing shrieks for mercy, their executioners alone replied by loud shouts of 'Mueren los Polacos! Death to the Poles--remember Ocaña!' At length Merino ordered a volley to be fired among the survivors; every shot told on the mass of dark forms that were writhing in the midst of what seemed a lake of fire; and after one or two piercing cries and groans, a pyramid of bright flame shot up into the air, and all was over! The day was breaking when the cura, at the head of his troops, was leaving the theatre of this bloody tragedy, and his horse nearly trode on the body of a Spanish peasant, who had been killed by a pistol-shot. It was Julian: the French colonel had kept his word. Merino stopped when he recognised his best spy lifeless, dropped a few tears, and exclaim-

ing 'Povere Julian, que lastisma!' (Poor Julian, what a pity!) ordered his body to be carried by an orderly, till a churchyard came in view where to inter it.

It was in October, 1809, that Napoleon had thus written to the emperor of Russia: 'General Wellesley has had the extreme imprudence to commit himself in the heart of Spain with 30,000 men; having on his flanks three armies, consisting of ninety battalions and from forty to fifty squadrons, and, in his front, the army commanded by the king, of equal force: it is difficult to conceive such an act of presumption.' Sir Arthur, however, maintained his ground; and on December 20th began the siege of Saragossa, which proved one of the most splendid instances on record of a prolonged resistance, lasting as it did until February 20, 1810. The last twenty-three days of it was a war of streets and houses; the edifices in the neighbourhood of the attacked bastion being of so solid a construction, that they were enabled to assist in the defence—which, on such occasions, is done by barricading the streets leading to the breach, and loop-holing the several stories of the houses for a musketry-fire. In 1810, with the rank of viscount Wellington, the general resolved on preventing, if possible, the attempt of the French to occupy Portugal; and when the fortress of Almeida, in that country, had fallen to the enemy (August), his lordship made the people of the town and neighbouring villages remove towards Lisbon, after burning every thing which they could not carry away; and when the French had been driven from Sierra Busaco, with equal loss on both sides, he removed to Torres Vedras, carrying with him the whole population of the intervening country. Great individual distress was the necessary consequence of this proceeding; and to alleviate it, liberal contributions were made in Lisbon and England. At the close of the year, Massena, with the French army, made Santarem his

head-quarters; while lord Wellington, with the capital behind him, and the sea open for supplies, had no reason to complain of difficulties.

In March 1811, the attempt of a combined English and Spanish force to destroy the French blockade of Cadiz, brought on the battle of Barrosa; and general Graham, the commander, obtained great credit for his talented conduct on so trying an occasion. After a very severe action, the enemy retreated, leaving behind them an eagle, six pieces of cannon, two generals wounded, and the field covered with arms and dead bodies. Massena, tired of waiting for supplies, and surrounded by a devastated country, now quitted Santarem, followed by lord Wellington. The object of the latter in pursuing the French was to prevent their excesses, and to urge them into Spain by the nearest roads; notwithstanding which, they acted most barbarously to the people through whose villages they passed. Massena crossed the Spanish frontier on the 4th of April, and he continued his retreat till he reached Ciudad Rodrigo, where he established his head-quarters, and whence he sallied forth to attack the British, who were blockading Almeida. But his assaults were repulsed by the skill of lord Wellington, Almeida was evacuated by its garrison, and many prisoners were made, as the retiring men wound their way through the blockading posts in silence, with the hope of escaping unobserved. The battle of Albuera took place between marshal Soult and the English marshal Beresford in June, when victory declared for the British; the enemy being compelled to cross the river, leaving 2000 dead, and 1000 prisoners. At the close of the year, sickness, and the want of reinforcements, induced lord Wellington to take up his winter-quarters within the Portuguese frontier; but on the 19th of January, 1812, he got possession of Ciudad Rodrigo by assault. The garrison of 1700 men, besides officers, together with 153 pieces of cannon, and vast

quantities of stores, were all placed at the disposal of the British; and the Spanish Cortes instantly made the conqueror a grandee of the first class, as duke of Ciudad Rodrigo, his grateful country conferring upon him an earldom. The earl of Wellington next invested Badajoz, on both sides of the Guadiana; and on the 7th of April the garrison surrendered, reduced as it was by the operations of the siege from 5000 to 3800 men. Soult, when he heard of this severe loss, retreated towards Andalusia; and the earl arrived without opposition at Salamanca, July 16th.

On the 22d a general engagement commenced. The resistance of the French was obstinate; but at the approach of night they fled, and were pursued by the English as long as they could be distinguished. Twelve pieces of cannon, two eagles, and a number of colours and waggons, were captured, 100 officers made prisoners, marshal Marmont wounded severely, and four general officers slain. The earl lost no time in advancing upon Madrid, which he entered August 12th, king Joseph, the brother of Napoleon, having quitted it four days before; and in commemoration of this event, the noble general was created marquis of Wellington, and presented, by the unanimous voice of parliament, with a handsome grant of money to purchase lands. After a short stay in the capital, the British advanced towards Valladolid, the enemy retiring before them to Burgos. Burgos the French evacuated in the night; but they left there a large garrison in the castle, and the place being defended by an almost impregnable line of works, lord Wellington, for want of artillery, was compelled to begin a retrograde march. He was closely pursued by the enemy, who gained an additional share of courage on perceiving an army, which had hitherto appeared invincible, actuated by fear. By the eminent skill, however, of their leader, the British reached Freynada on the frontier of

Portugal, with trifling loss: pursued as they were by an overwhelming force of 75,000 men and 200 pieces of cannon. Lord Wellington took up his winter-quarters here; and on visiting Lisbon, he was received with the most unequivocal marks of triumphant welcome.

Nothing further occurred worthy of mention until 1813, when the Cortes, who had hitherto been jealous of the British general, gave him the full command of their troops. By a series of brilliant operations, the French were immediately driven from their positions on the Ebro and Douro, and at length were reduced to the alternative of abandoning the country entirely, or risking every thing upon a pitched battle. King Joseph adopted the latter course, and drew up his forces near Vittoria, where, on the 21st of June, he was signally beaten. The artillery, baggage, and military chest of the fugitives, fell into the hands of the victors; and so complete was the rout, that the remnants of the defeated army scarcely deemed themselves safe until they had escaped fairly into France. When intelligence of this victory reached England, the marquis was advanced to the very unusual British honour of Field-marshal. Before pursuing the French into their own country, it was necessary for the marquis to reduce St. Sebastian and Pampeluna: the former, after a frightful loss, was taken by storm, and the latter surrendered by capitulation. Meanwhile the operations of the allied armies in the south-eastern provinces proceeded badly; and sir John Murray, after beginning the siege of Tarragona without consideration, abandoned his works and guns with equal haste. But the vigour of the marquis compensated this error: he crossed the Bidassoa in October, and in the next month defeated Soult's army on the Nivelle. Winter interrupted not the war; and Soult, being driven with severe loss from his strong position at Orthes, exposed Bordeaux to

the invading army. At the same instant the duc d'Angoulême, the representative of the ancient line of monarchs (now by his party styled ex-king of France), arrived in the marquis's camp, and was received by the people of Bordeaux with unexpected enthusiasm. The white cockade was to be seen in every hat and cap; the white flag streamed from every steeple, castle, and tower; and no spectator could have supposed but that the loyal feeling of the people, suppressed during the long tyranny of Buonaparte, had now burst forth, never again to be subdued.

The marquis and his Spanish allies continuing the pursuit of Soult, that marshal was first driven from an advantageous post at Aire, then from a strong position behind the town of Tarbes, and was finally forced to fall back upon Toulouse. The British general had now rapidly extended the authority of the allied army over the country, from the Pyrenees to the river Garonne; with the exception only of the strong places of Bayonne, St. Jean-pied-de-port, and Navarreins; and these also were closely blockaded by his troops. But to render the diversion in favour of the northern armies yet more effective, he determined to dislodge the enemy from the city and the military position of Toulouse likewise. This enterprise was attended with extreme difficulty; first, from its being necessary to separate the allied army into two parts, in order to enable it to act on both sides of the Garonne, whilst the enemy retained his whole force perfectly united by means of the bridge of Toulouse; secondly, because the passage of the river by the part of the allied army destined to operate on its right bank, had to be effected in sight of, and within reach of the enemy; and thirdly, because the French troops occupied on the right bank, and in immediate connexion with the city of Toulouse, a position of very great natural strength, extremely difficult of approach, and to which Soult was daily adding new

works. But these obstacles were all overcome; a sanguinary battle took place between the two enemies, April 10, 1814; and Soult, being completely defeated, evacuated the post in the night of the 11th, leaving three generals and 1600 men prisoners. On the following day, the marquis entered the place, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. The dislodgment of the enemy from an almost unsailable military position, afforded at once an evidence of the extraordinary talents and enterprising spirit of lord Wellington, and established a distinct mark of the progress which had been made by his arms; nevertheless some of the French have recently ventured to affirm (and have been supported by a party in England possessing little of the '*amor patriæ*') that Soult, not Wellington, was the victor at Toulouse. To say nothing of the absurdity of a conqueror evacuating a post in the night for which he had been contending, and leaving his men therein to be made prisoners, the dispassionate reader need only peruse the published dispatches of the duke of Wellington, who, with his accustomed clearness, and hatred of all ambiguous and confusing terms and details, shows the victory of Toulouse to have belonged, without a shadow of doubt, to the British. Before quitting the subject, a circumstance connected with the battle should be recorded. In the first attack upon the French, the Spaniards in the British ranks, anxious to monopolise all the glory, made their movement a little too soon, before they were supported by the British troops: the consequence was, they got into a fire they could not sustain, and the whole of them set off on the full run to the rear. The marquis regarded them some time, expecting they would stop behind the English, who had moved forwards, and obliged the French to retire; but no such thing—they absolutely ran off out of sight—whereat the illustrious general, unable longer to restrain his laughter, exclaimed, 'Well, hang me,

if I ever saw 10,000 men run a race before!' During the evening of the day on which the marquis entered Toulouse, news reached him, which made it evident that the last severe conflict might have been spared. The emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia had entered Paris on the 31st of March; and Buonaparte had been formally deposed. Soult, however, did not deem the intelligence authentic; and the marquis therefore continued his advance until the 17th of April, when fresh despatches came, and the French desired a suspension of hostilities. Upon the arrival of the marquis in Paris, he was deservedly created duke of Wellington by his sovereign; and an additional grant of money was made to his grace by the parliament, to purchase lands.

Thus closed the celebrated Peninsular war; and few military achievements can weigh in the balance with the peculiar merits of this sweeping clearance of the foe from every corner of Spain and Portugal into the gulley of the Pyrenees, and thence into France, there again to be signally conquered on his own soil. The vigilance, the patience, the labours of years, will be duly estimated, when the great leader shall have passed to scenes where wars are not, and when the narrative shall have taken its proper station in history. According to the judgment of experienced soldiers, the work is alone sufficient to place the name of Wellington in the highest rank of warriors, whether of ancient or modern times; and as a merciful victor, and the anxious guardian of his men, no general has ever more deserved, or more obtained, the approbation of all true lovers of their country.

THE WALCHEREN EXPEDITION.—It was in 1809 that, to create a diversion in favour of Austria (which was once more endeavouring to throw off the yoke of Napoleon), the English ministry sent out an expedition to the coast of Holland, under the earl of Chatham and sir Richard

Strachan, which soon subdued the fortress of Flushing, and the isle of Walcheren, then under French domination; but the extreme unhealthiness of the climate forced the conquerors to evacuate their acquisitions, after the sacrifice of many valuable lives. The unfortunate enterprise was both ill-conceived and badly executed: the armament did not reach Holland until Austria had been irretrievably ruined at Wagram; and the main objects of the expedition, which were the destruction of the French fleet in the Scheldt, and the occupation of Antwerp, were barely attempted. According to the French account, 25,000 English perished on the occasion. 'The English (says Napoleon himself in a letter) might as well have thrown their men into the sea, as have sent them into the pestilential marshes of Walcheren.' The simple reduction of the fortress of Flushing was a gallant affair; but it of course grievously injured the port and town. Flushing has always had much notoriety, as the grand place of resort of English smugglers.

THE TYROLESE INSURRECTION, 1809.—The Tyrol is a district of Germany, at the south of Bavaria, bounded on the west by Switzerland, on the south and east by Lombardy, and on the north-east by Austria, into the possession of which it came 1363, when Margaret, countess of the Tyrol, bequeathed it to her nudes, the dukes of Austria. It is 150 miles long from north to south, and 120 broad from east to west, and contains, amongst its many fine towns, the ancient one of Trent, where the great council was held. The country is very mountainous, having the Alps in one part of it; and it has forests abounding in game, mines rich in silver, copper, lead, and salt, and produces rubies, amethysts, emeralds, and cornelians of fine quality. Innspruck is the capital, and Austrian seat of government; and the Inn is the chief river, which, passing into Bavaria, falls into the Danube. The Tyrolese

are remarkably primitive and simple in their habits, greatly attached to their country, and generally industrious, and of a mechanical turn. Necessity has driven them to the useful arts, as a means of supplying the deficiencies of nature; and the numerous cascades with which the country abounds, afford ample opportunity of obtaining, at no expense, an external power, capable of setting in motion their simple machinery. Conducted into the fields, the house, and mills, by little wooden troughs, in the course of their precipitous descent, the mountain torrents perform the most important functions of domestic economy. The irrigation of meadows, the grinding of corn, the fabrication of oil, the sharpening of tools, are all performed by these streams, on the mills which they set in motion. In many places each peasant has his mill, which is applied to almost every purpose of life; even the rocking of a cradle is sometimes performed by means of a water-wheel. Nor are the most minute arts overlooked by this industrious people; and numbers of families earn a not contemptible livelihood by rearing canary-birds, which are sold in all the cities of Europe. When Napoleon, after his victory of Austerlitz, 1805, had compelled Austria to cede the Tyrol to Bavaria, in lieu of Wurzburg, it was stipulated, to calm the fears of the Tyrolese, that they should retain the same privileges as when under the dominion of Austria, whose protection they had enjoyed 442 years. Maximilian of Bavaria, however, was no sooner master of the country, than a total change was effected, and even the name of South Bavaria substituted for that of the Tyrol. The Tyrolese, upon this breach of faith, secretly determined to deliver their country from the Bavarian yoke; and sending deputies privately to Vienna, the Austrians promised them a supply of arms. Among the deputies was Andere Hofer, whose family, for a long succession of years, had been proprietors

of the inn at Sand, in the valley of Passeyr; of which himself was now the host. His benevolence of character had endeared him to the inhabitants of the valley; and a former campaign, in which he commanded a company of *tirailleurs*, had made him sufficiently acquainted with war, to induce him to take the lead in the projected levy of the people. Accordingly, when 10,500 Austrian troops entered the country in the night of the 8th April, 1809, merely to organize the *levée en masse*, Hofer and his friend Teimer issued their proclamations, and were speedily joined by the peasantry. The Bavarians, hardly able to comprehend the nature of so sudden a revolution, began destroying the bridges and highways, to obstruct the further progress of the Austrians; but, to their astonishment, they could obtain assistance only from their own soldiers; and on attempting to retreat from the Tyrol, a great number of them were made prisoners by the country-people. Though the French speedily reinforced them, and engaged the Tyrolese at St. Laurent, the united forces were entirely put to the rout; and the capitulation of Wiltau, which obtained Martin Teimer the title of baron de Wiltau, effected on the 13th of April the emancipation of the country.

Thus, without the aid of regular troops (for the Austrians did not contend), the peasantry of the Tyrol restored their little territory to the protection of its ancient guardians. During the conflict, the women, armed with pitchforks, were employed in rolling down fragments of rock from the elevated crags of the mountains upon their enemies passing along the valleys; and they were for the most part boys who dismounted a corps of cavalry on the plains of Halle. The united French and Bavarians twice more entered the little state; and after their third repulse by the people, a solemn *Fête* was celebrated at Innsbruck, which place Hofer entered in triumph

on the 15th of August. Hofer was now declared commander-in-chief of the Tyrol, and all authority, civil and military, was vested in his person; but unhappily a division took place in a few weeks between him and Teimer, and the French, taking advantage of the feud, recovered by the end of October every important post.

Peace having been concluded between France and Austria, an amnesty was promised to such of the Tyrolese as would lay down their arms without delay. Hofer, however, called upon his countrymen to reject the proposal, and, in several spirited proclamations, entreated them to make one grand effort to drive out the invaders. But the heroic Sandwirth found himself alone in the field; and deserted by the peasantry, he fled to a little cottage, only four leagues distant from Sand, whither some faithful adherents carried him food. Here an express from the emperor reached him, entreating his instant removal to Vienna; but he strangely declined the gracious offer, and Donay de Schlanders, his treacherous confidant, having, for a large sum of money, discovered the place of his retreat, a company of 1500 Frenchmen came within musket-shot of the cottage. Hofer made no resistance, and was taken to Mantua, where a council of war ordered his execution within twenty-four hours. The Sandwirth heard his sentence with calmness, and only remarked that he had hoped the peculiarity of his situation would have justified his conduct after the amnesty.

On the morning of the 20th of February, 1810, at eleven, Hofer was brought forth, escorted by soldiers, and conducted in procession to the place appointed for his execution. Those of the Tyrolese who were in the houses, fell on their knees in prayer as he passed; while as many as could get into the streets, attended him to the fatal spot, imploring his benediction. The martyr to the cause of the Tyrol freely dispensed it to them; and when the escort

drew up on a bastion near the Porta Ceresa, he gave to the abbé Mani-festi, his confessor, all he had of value about his person, requesting him to distribute it as he thought proper. Twelve grenadiers and a corporal were then commanded to advance, and the Sandwirth ordered to be placed in the centre. He accordingly came forward, but would not suffer his eyes to be bandaged; and when desired to fall on his knees, refused, saying emphatically, 'I am upright, speaking as a mortal, before Him who created me; and upright I wish to surrender to Him my spirit:' thus unconsciously conforming to the maxim of Vespasian, 'Imperatorem oportet stantem mori.' To the corporal he gave a piece of twenty kreutzers, coined during his administration; and then exclaimed in a loud voice, 'Fire!' Though each of the grenadiers struck him, he died not until the corporal's musket had been discharged. The grenadiers then bore away the corpse, and it was interred with great solemnity.

THE DUKE OF YORK'S TRIAL, 1809.—The duke was the second son of George III., and commander-in-chief of the British army. Colonel War-dle, in the house of commons, having accused him of promoting improper persons to military rank, through the influence of a Mrs. Clarke, an inquiry was instituted into his conduct, and he was honourably acquitted, though he thereupon resigned his post. In 1810, he was, to the great joy of the army, reinstated; and during the last years of the war with France, his royal highness, by an unceasing attention to the character and talents of the officers, and to the comforts and health of the men, prepared for his country, under God, the most splendid victories which our annals boast. Trained under a system so admirable, the army seemed to increase in efficacy in proportion to the increasing occasion which the public had for their services. Nor is it a less praise that, when the men so disciplined returned from scenes of battle,

they reassumed the habits of private life, as if they had never left them; and that of all the offences which the criminal calendar long after presented, there were very few instances indeed in which the perpetrators were disbanded soldiers.

THE JUBILEE OF GEORGE III., 1809, to commemorate his majesty's completion of the fiftieth year of his reign, was celebrated with great splendour, October 25. The public were entertained in every possible manner gratuitously; and the same ceremonies were repeated August 1, 1814, when the house of Brunswick in England completed its hundredth year.

ABOLITION OF THE PAPAL POWER, 1809.—After the death of Ganganelli (Clement XIV.) and the suppression of the Jesuits, the temporal power of the popes rapidly declined; and when Pius VI. was carried off by Berthier from the capitol to France 1798, it may be said to have been extinguished. In 1800 Napoleon, to serve his own ambitious ends, created cardinal Chiaramonte pope, with the title of Pius VII.; that personage crowned him emperor 1804; but in 1809 he declared the papal functions terminated, and the states of the church for ever added to France. (See *The Papedom* in *Parallel Reigns*.)

THE MAURITIUS MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1810.—Mauritius, or the isle of France, is in the Indian ocean, forty leagues from the isle of Bourbon, and 120 from Madagascar; and is thirty-five miles long, and twenty broad. It was discovered by Mascarenhas, a Portuguese, 1507, and by him called Cerne; but it was not colonized even when, in 1598, the Dutch admiral Van Nerk took possession of it for his country, naming it Mauritius, after Maurice, Prince of Orange. Van Nerk did not leave any one on the isle, nor was it inhabited till 1721, when the French landed from Bourbon, and established a small settlement, on which occasion they named it the isle of France.

The spot, however, was used for little other than a watering-place for ships until 1810; when, it having become a rendezvous for the freebooters of every nation, especially French, to fit out privateers, and commit depredations on English property, 12,000 troops, with twenty ships of war, despatched by our government in India, added it to the crown of Great Britain. The English governors have been: 1810, Lt. J. Farquhar; 1817, general G. L. Hall; 1818, colonel J. Dalrymple; 1819, general R. Darling; 1820, sir R. J. Farquhar; 1823, sir John Dalrymple; 1827, general Colville; 1833, general Nicolay. The isle is one of the most picturesque and romantic in the eastern hemisphere; the land rises from the coast to the centre; and chains of mountains intersect it in various radii from that centre to the shore; here are, however, three principal ranges, in height from 1800 to 2800 feet above the sea, mostly covered with timber. The climate is on the whole salubrious; sugar is the staple, of which large quantities are annually exported; and amongst the fruits which flourish, may be named the orange, lemon, mango, guava, lime, fig, pomegranate, grape, tamarind, cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, date, almond, guinea, citron, mulberry, pineapple, bread-fruit and peach. A great number of small isles are under the government of Mauritius, especially the Seychelles, forming an archipelago, which capitulated to the British, 1794.

Many of them are good fishing-places, and all have a few residents from Mauritius on them, to keep up something like a government among the natives. The rule of Mauritius is in the governor, an executive council of four, and a legislative of fifteen members.

DEATH OF THE PRINCESS AMELIA, 1810.—The decease of this beloved daughter of George III., who sent him a ring in which was a braid of her hair, as a last token of remembrance, just before she expired,

brought upon the declining monarch in 1811 a second visitation of his dreadful malady; and from this he never again recovered.

REFORM AGITATION, 1810.—Throughout the latter period of this reign, there was a constant disposition amongst men of unsettled minds, to ascribe every evil in the national affairs to the want of a correct parliamentary representation. Meetings public and private were constantly held to discuss the grievances of the people; and in 1794 Mr. Horne Tooke, a clergyman, who had thrown aside his gown, and a Mr. Hardy, were tried on this account, for high treason, but acquitted. Sir Francis Burdett afterwards took up the same cause, and was frequently seen haranguing vast multitudes of persons in the open streets; and in 1818 was sent to the Tower for a libel on the house of commons; not, however, without a conflict between the military and the mob. Mr. Cobbett, author of a cheap political register, and afterwards a member of the house, ceased not to write and speak publicly on the same question: he also in 1810 was convicted of a libel, fined 1000*l.*, and imprisoned two years in Newgate. Pursuing the same course, Mr. Hunt, a Wiltshire farmer, became the idol of the populace, and was returned member for Preston; and in 1819, in consequence of assembling a meeting at Manchester, which was dispersed by the yeomanry-cavalry with loss of life, he was sentenced to imprisonment, and closed his career as a vendor of blacking. Another reform advocate, Major Cartwright, was long considered a magnus Apollo by the vulgar; and was occasionally called before the magistracy, and required to abstain from reform agitation. To the honour of sir Francis Burdett it must be stated, he retired, when the Reform Bill had passed, from the ranks of the popular leaders, declaring that, as reform had been carried, his object was attained; a secession which was greeted with every im-

ginable mark of reprobation by his former colleagues.

MASSACRE OF THE MAMLUK BEYS, 1811.—Mehemet Ali, pacha of Egypt for the Turkish sultan, having been long fearful of a rise amongst the Mamluk chiefs, the former rulers of Egypt (whose oligarchy of (strictly) 300 he had supplanted by his own tyranny of one), drove many of them into Dongola and Nubia, and invited such as he had not any excuse to expel, to attend the magnificent procession of his son Tossun, on occasion of being created general-in-chief in an expedition against the Wahhâbees and receiving the pelisse, or viceroy's insignia. M. Salamé thus relates the issue. 'The mournful Friday came, when Saim Bey Elfy collected all the other Mamluk Beys at his palace; and, little suspecting any treacherous dealing, the whole party, splendidly attired, and mounted on the most beautiful horses, proceeded at nine in the morning to the citadel. After they were gone, I mounted my ass, and, not without great difficulty on account of the crowd, reached the inner courtyard of the castle. Here, after some delay, the beys paid their congratulations to the pacha and his proclaimed son, and formed into procession. The cavalcade began with the janizaries; and the Mamluk Beys were the last who preceded the pacha's son. More than an hour elapsed before the whole had left the castle; and before the Beys had come out, Mehemet Ali, habited in a blue robe and pink turban, and accompanied by Hassan Pacha, went to a small room on the staircase of the divan, looking over the court. He appeared much agitated. Suddenly I saw, as the Beys came out, to my utmost horror, the gate closed, and I heard Ahmed order the troops to fire! The soldiers, not aware of the plot, did not obey; whereupon Ahmed himself fired at one of the Beys, and the men followed his example. The spectacle of the innocent victims falling off their horses was most awful; but a

few, who were not killed at the first fire, rushed (as I did myself) into the castle, calling for mercy. They were, however, pursued by the soldiery; and all who surrendered, including Saim Bey, had their heads instantly cut off. Dromedaryers were now despatched by Mehemet Ali to the governors of provinces, directing them to seize all the Mamluks who might be found in the villages, and send them in chains to Cairo; and 200 were collected and barbarously beheaded, making the whole number massacred between 600 and 700.' Giovanni Finati gives the following account. 'The hour of audience was at hand, and a procession of about 500 Mamluk officers of higher or lower degrees presented themselves at the gate of the citadel, and went in. They made rather a splendid show, and were led by three of their generals, among whom Saim Bey was conspicuous. When entered, they proceeded directly onwards to the palace, which occupies the highest ground; and as soon as their arrival there was announced to Mehemet Ali and Hassan Pacha, who were sitting in conference together within, an immediate order was given for the introduction of the three chiefs, who were received with great affability by both. After a time, according to eastern custom, coffee was brought, and then the pipes; but at the moment when the latter were presented, as if from etiquette, or to leave his guests more at their ease, Mehemet Ali arose and withdrew; and sending for the captain of his guard, gave orders that the gates of the citadel should be closed; adding, 'that as soon as Saim Bey and his two associates should come out for the purpose of mounting, they should be fired upon till they dropped; and that at the same signal, the troops posted throughout the fortress should take aim at every Mamluk within their reach. A corresponding order was sent down to those in the town, and to such even as were encamped without, round the foot of the for-

tress, to pursue the work of extermination on all stragglers that they should find; so that not one of the proscribed body should escape.

Saim Bey, and his two brothers in command, finding that the pacha did not return to them, and being informed by the attendants that he 'had gone into his harem,' (an answer that precluded all further inquiry), judged it time to take their departure. But no sooner did they make their appearance without, and were mounting their horses, than they were suddenly fired upon from every quarter, and all became at once a scene of confusion, dismay, and horror. Similar volleys were directed at all who were collected round, and preparing to return with the chiefs; so that the victims dropped by hundreds. Saim himself had time to gain his saddle, and even to penetrate to one of the gates of the citadel, but all to no purpose; for he found it closed like the rest, and fell there, pierced with innumerable bullets. Another chief, Amim Bey, a kinsman of Saim Bey, urged the noble animal which he rode to an act of the greatest desperation: for he spurred him till he made him clamber upon the rampart, and preferred rather to be dashed to pieces, than to be slaughtered in cold blood. The generous animal obeyed, scaled the height, and leaped down the precipice, full forty feet; and fortune so favoured the rider, that, though his noble steed was killed in the fall, himself escaped. An Albanian camp

below, and an officer's tent very near the spot on which Amim alighted. Instead of shunning it, he went; and throwing himself on the rites of hospitality (still the sacred right of the stranger, exile, and hospes in the East), implored that no advantage might be taken of him. His prayer was not only granted, but the officer promised him protection, even at his own peril; and kept him concealed, so long as the popular fury, and the excesses of the soldiery continued.' Many Mamluks still

exist in Nubia: and one of the most wealthy and powerful of them lately was the same Amim Bey, of the house of Saim Bey Elfy, who so happily escaped, as related, from the snare laid for him in Egypt.

MURDERS OF THE FAMILIES OF MARR AND WILLIAMSON.—In December, 1811, were perpetrated, in the same part of London, two of the most dreadful murders on record, and without any proved discovery of the assassins. Mr. Marr, a tradesman of Ratcliff-highway, having sent his servant-girl out at twelve at night to purchase oysters, was found, on the girl's return in a quarter of an hour, lying on the floor of his shop with his brains beaten out, together with his wife and the shop-boy. An infant in the cradle had its throat cut from ear to ear. Twelve nights after this event, John Turner, a lodger in one Williamson's public-house in Ratcliff, escaped from the house by sheets tied together, and informed a watchman that he had just seen a man standing over the landlady's murdered body in the tap-room. The house was accordingly forced open, and not only was Mrs. Williamson found horribly butchered, but her husband also, and their maid-servant, Bridget Harrington. As one Williams, taken up upon suspicion, hanged himself while in prison, it was presumed that he had been the chief actor in both these tragedies: but further evidence was in no way obtained. Such was the horror and alarm excited by these un-English slaughters throughout the metropolis, that numerous shopkeepers dreaded, for some time afterwards, lest the approach of night should introduce a murderer to their houses unobserved.

THE REGENCY QUESTION SETTLED, 1811.—In consequence of the lamentable illness of his parent, the prince of Wales was unanimously declared regent, but with very limited kingly powers.

THE GREAT COMET, 1811.—After one of the hottest summers on re-

cord, a most brilliant comet appeared to the whole continent of Europe, and was at its highest splendour in September, 1811. The length of its tail, according to Herschell, was upwards of one hundred millions of miles, and its breadth, at the widest point, fifteen millions of miles. Its period of revolution, according to Bessel, is 3383 years; so that it could have been seen by the world only once before, namely, in the year before Christ, 1572, somewhere between the decease of the patriarch Joseph, who died 1635 B.C., and the foundation of Athens by Cecrops, 1556 B.C.

THE BRITISH REGENCY ESTABLISHED, 1812.—In 1811 the prince of Wales had been appointed regent of the British dominions, in consequence of the lamented relapse into severe illness of his illustrious and excellent parent, king George III.; but the powers with which his royal highness had been invested were limited, much to the annoyance of the whig party, with whom the prince had long associated himself. So galling a restraint induced a year's political strife and paper-war; and antagonist pamphlets, maintaining respectively the rights of a regent to full kingly powers, and that a regent was no king, were multiplying in every direction, when the parliament, in its wisdom, settled the question. In 1812 George, prince of Wales, was declared regent of the United Kingdom, with nearly all the regal powers.

ASSASSINATION OF MR. PERCEVAL, 1812.—As Mr. Spencer Perceval, the prime minister, was entering the lobby of the house of commons, May 11th, a person named Bellingham fired a pistol at him, the ball of which entered his left breast. Mr. Perceval uttered a faint exclamation, staggered a few paces, and fell on his face. He was immediately conveyed into the speaker's apartment; but before he reached it, life had departed. In the scene of confusion which ensued, the murderer might have es-

caped; but, instead of attempting to quit the place, he deliberately sat down, and avowed the horrid deed, but said that he had mistaken Mr. Perceval for lord Leveson Gower, late ambassador to the court of St. Petersburg. He stated that he had been refused redress by the ministry, after acting in a diplomatic matter with Russia; and he was executed for his offence, evincing no signs of remorse to the last. **SPENCER PERCEVAL** (1762—1812) was second son of the Earl of Egmont; and after an education at Harrow and Trinity college, Cambridge, entered at Lincoln's inn, with a view of practising at the chancery bar. In this pursuit he soon distinguished himself as a sound constitutional lawyer, and obtained a silk gown. In 1796 he represented Northampton in parliament; and five years after, his legal abilities, which had attracted the notice of the minister, aided by family influence, raised him to the office of solicitor-general. In 1802 he became attorney-general, and filled that situation till 1807; when, on the formation of the new ministry after the death of Mr. Fox, he reached the zenith of his career, being appointed chancellor of the exchequer, on the principle of catholic exclusion. In this high and respectable post he continued until the above-recorded murder terminated his valuable life, at the age of 50, 1812.

SECOND AMERICAN WAR, 1812.—The first war designated 'American,' separated that portion of the British North American colony, now known as the United States, from the mother-country, 1782; after which, peace was maintained with tolerable steadiness between the bereaved parent and her rebellious offspring for thirty years. Bickerings, however, had not been infrequent, and jealousies were constantly fostering ill-will, and threatening a second resort to arms. At length a trifling incident brought matters to a crisis. In 1811 the *Little Belt*, a British ship of small force, under Captain Bingham, had en-

gaged the American frigate, *United States*, under Commodore Rogers; and each party laid the blame, as respected the original offence, upon the other. As the point was not at once explicitly settled, it was resolved by the Americans, in 1812, to decide it with the sword; and a contest was for some time carried on upon the lakes and frontiers of Canada, which, though productive of events, was unimportant in consequences to either party. In June, 1813, an engagement took place between the British frigate, *Shannon*, Captain Broke, and the United States frigate, *Chesapeake*, Captain Lawrence, off the port of Boston; and the former being victorious, the *Chesapeake* was led away in triumph in sight of the Americans. [See *Battle of the Shannon and Chesapeake*.] In this desultory manner did the war proceed until 1814, when England, having closed her long continental struggle, made strenuous efforts to end the dispute. Washington, the capital, was accordingly taken by surprise, by Captain Ross, August the 24th; and after burning the public buildings, together with two vessels of war on the stocks, the invaders retired. The Americans, with their accustomed confidence, had never dreamed of defeat. Mr. Maddison, the president, had even prepared a dinner for the victorious officers of the army at his residence; and when a detachment, sent to destroy the house, entered his dining-parlour, they found covers laid for forty guests. Several kinds of wine were cooling on the sideboard; plate-holders stood by the fireplace; knives, forks, and spoons, were arranged for immediate use; in short, every thing was ready for the entertainment of a ceremonious party. Such were the arrangements in the dining-room; whilst in the kitchen were others answerable to them in every respect. Spits loaded with joints of various sorts, turned before the fire; pots, saucepans, and other culinary utensils, stood upon the grate; and all

the other requisites for an elegant and substantial repast were exactly in a state which indicated that they had been lately and precipitately abandoned. We may readily imagine that these preparations were beheld by a party of hungry soldiers with no indifferent eye. An elegant dinner, even though considerably over-dressed, was a luxury to which few of them, at least for some time back, had been accustomed; and which, after the dangers and fatigues of the day, appeared peculiarly inviting. They served it up, and sat down to it, therefore, with countenances which would not have disgraced a party of aldermen at a civic feast; and having satisfied their appetites, they finished by setting fire to the house which had so liberally entertained them. This act of severity was occasioned by the people of Washington having fired upon a general officer when carrying a flag of truce into the city from the British. On the 24th of December a treaty of peace was concluded between the two countries at Ghent; but not in time to prevent an attack by the English on New Orleans, in which they were defeated January, 1815, with 2000 killed, wounded, and prisoners, including generals Pakenham and Keane killed, and general Gibbs severely wounded.

BATTLE OF THE SHANNON AND CHESAPEAKE, 1813.—Captain Broke of the *Shannon* had sent a challenge to captain Lawrence of the *Chesapeake*, to meet him in any latitude or longitude that might be agreed on; and in the forenoon of June 1, 1813, the *Shannon* appeared in the bay off Boston to decide the long mooted question, 'which would show its superiority, of two ships equally manned, *et cæteris paribus*, the one in the British, the other in the American service.' Of course nothing but a desultory war, such as the one then carrying on between the two countries, would have warranted such a trial. At twelve meridian therefore, the *Chesapeake* lifted her anchor,

and stood out into the bay, with a pleasant breeze from the southward and westward. As the Shannon was then in plain sight, the ship was cleared for action, 'and notwithstanding certain sinister circumstances, the history of naval warfare,' says Mr. Cooper, the apologist of the Chesapeake, 'does not contain an instance of a ship being more gallantly conducted than the Chesapeake was now handled.' The Shannon stood off under easy sail, when captain Lawrence fired a gun about half-past four, which induced her to heave to, with her head to the southward and westward. By this time the wind had freshened; and at five the Chesapeake took in her royal and topgallant sails, and half an hour later she hauled up her courses. The two ships were now about thirty miles from the lights; the Shannon under single-reefed topsails and jib, and the Chesapeake under her whole topsails and jib, coming down fast. As the Shannon was running with the wind a little free, there was an anxious moment aboard of her, during which it was uncertain on which side the Chesapeake was about to close, or whether she might not be disposed to commence the action on her quarter. But captain Lawrence chose to lay his enemy fairly alongside, yardarm and yardarm, and he luffed and ranged up abeam on the Shannon's starboard-side. When the Chesapeake's foremast was in a line with the Shannon's mizen-mast, the latter ship discharged her cabin guns, and the others in succession, from aft forward. The Chesapeake did not fire until all her guns bore; when she delivered as destructive a broadside as probably ever came out of a ship of her force. For six or eight minutes the cannonading was fierce; but while passing the Shannon's broadside, the Chesapeake had her foretopmast-tie and jib-sheet shot away. Her spanker-brails were also loosened, and the sail blew out. At the few first discharges of the Shannon, captain Lawrence had received

a wound in the leg; Mr. Browne, the marine officer, Mr. Ballard, the acting fourth lieutenant, and the boatswain, were mortally wounded. Mr. White the master was killed, and Mr. Ludlow the first lieutenant was twice wounded by the grape and musketry. Such was the state of the upper deck of the Chesapeake, when captain Lawrence perceived that the ships were likely to fall foul of each other; and while giving commands to prevent that occurrence, a ball struck him, and, passing through his body, instantaneously killed him. Captain Broke passed forward with his ship; and seeing that the enemy was flinching from his guns, gave the order to board. The English soon had entire command above-board; and though some of the Chesapeake's officers appeared on deck, and fought desperately, but in disorder, the Chesapeake's colours were hauled down by the British, who soon got complete possession. Few naval battles have been more sanguinary than this. It lasted altogether not more than fifteen minutes; yet both ships were charnel-houses. The Chesapeake had forty-eight men killed, and ninety-eight wounded; the Shannon had twenty-three killed, and fifty-six wounded. It was impossible for ships of that size to approach so near in tolerably smooth water, and to fire with so much steadiness, without committing great havoc. Perhaps the capture of no single ship ever produced so much exultation on the side of the victors, or so much depression on that of the beaten party, as that of the Chesapeake. The American nation had fallen into the error of imagining themselves invincible on the ocean, and this without any better reason than having been successful in a few detached combats; and its mortification was in proportion to the magnitude of its delusion; while England joyously hailed the success of the Shannon as a proof that her ancient naval renown was untarnished, Captain Broke was,

for his distinguished zeal, courage, and intrepidity in the brilliant affair, created by the Prince-Regent, 1813, a baronet, by the style and title of sir Philip Bowes Vere Broke, of Nacton, Suffolk; and the relics of the 'shivered' Chesapeake now compose the timbers of Wickham mill, near Portsmouth.

BRIEF INDEPENDENCE OF NORWAY, 1814.—By the convention of Kiel, agreed to in January, 1814, between the courts of Sweden and Denmark, Norway was ceded by Denmark to Sweden, after being held by the former power (from 1397) 417 years. A Danish prince, however, Christiern Frederick, cousin of Frederick VI. of Denmark, who was governor of Norway at the time, having succeeded in gaining the affections of the nation, made an attempt to constitute Norway a separate kingdom. For that purpose he called together a national assembly at Eidsvold, whereat, on the 17th of May, the outlines of a constitution were laid down. On the 6th of August he assembled the legislative body, or Storting, in Christiania. But the Swedes soon entered the country with an armed force; and the prince, who had assumed the title of king, was obliged to abdicate the royal dignity on the 7th of October. Prince Christiern's constitution still governs Norway, which, though a portion of Sweden, thus has its own laws.

RESTORATION OF SOVEREIGNS, 1814.—Bonaparte, on his dethronement, 1814, being constituted king of Elba in the Mediterranean, Louis XVIII., brother of the murdered Louis XVI., was acknowledged sovereign of France; while Ferdinand VII. recovered the Spanish crown, and pope Pius VII. his tiara. The duke of Brunswick was cordially welcomed to his ancient inheritance, and the king of the Sicilies received his territories unimpaired. The Stadtholder had been in 1813 joyfully greeted at Amsterdam with cries of 'Oranje boven!' (Orange for ever!) and the whole continent was speedily put

into the form which characterized it before the French revolution.

THE LUDDITE RIOTS, 1814.—An alarming disposition to riot, having for its object the destruction of all machinery used by the great manufacturers, prevailed in the hosiery district of Nottinghamshire, throughout this and succeeding years, extending at length over Cheshire, Lancashire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire. The numbers and audacity of the rioters, the systematic plans upon which they acted, and the weapons with which many of them were provided, rendered them truly formidable, not only to the master manufacturers whose frames and other machinery they demolished, but also to persons not concerned in the fray. The leaders of these disturbances, who affected to act under a general Ludd, were found to be of the lowest order of people; and after several of the most guilty had been executed at Derby and elsewhere, tranquillity was in a great measure restored, 1817.

THE SOUTHCOTT IMPOSTURE, 1814.—Johanna Southcott, of mean parentage in the west of England, declared herself, 1810, to be the mother of the promised Shiloh, whose speedy advent she confidently predicted. Although in the highest degree illiterate, she scribbled much unintelligible nonsense as prophecy, and for a while carried on a lucrative trade in the sale of seals, which were, under certain conditions, to secure the salvation of the purchasers. She also constituted one Tozer, a fanatical preacher, her high-priest, and gave him characteristic attire. It is melancholy to reflect that more than 100,000 persons became her registered proselytes! A cradle of the most costly materials was provided at a fashionable upholsterer's in London, for the reception of the miraculous babe; but on a sudden, the prophetess herself began to have misgivings, declaring that, if deceived, she had been the sport of some spirit either good or evil; and in December, 1814,

she died. Her deluded followers, distinguished among whom was Mr. Sharpe, the talented engraver, long and confidently expected her resurrection from the grave: some still live, it is said, and are yet looking forward to the certain accomplishment of the birth. As Chesterfield said, in summing up Bolingbroke's character, we may well exclaim, 'Alas, poor human nature!'

THE ROYAL VISIT, 1834, of the emperor of Russia and king of Prussia to England, where they were splendidly entertained for some weeks by the Prince Regent. The celebrated Prussian general Blücher, the Cossack hetman Platov, and others who had been engaged in the subjugation of Napoleon, accompanied them. A general thanksgiving for the conclusion of so protracted a war took place July 7; on which occasion the royal party attended divine service at St. Paul's.

A SEVERE FROST, 1814, in January, enabled a fair to be held on the river Thames, between London and Blackfriars bridges. The river remained nearly six weeks in this state. It was commonly remarked that the greatest destruction of evergreen plants on this occasion occurred in the valleys, and protected low grounds; and that very few shrubs of that sort perished on the hills, and in the most exposed situations. This is philosophically accounted for by the damp collecting in low-grounds, whence the little air that is in motion during frosts cannot expel it: white or hoar-frosts are the consequence, and the damp, thus freezing upon the leaves, stops their pores, and destroys the circulation of the plants. This was again found the case in the severe winter of January—March, 1838, when most of the laurel tribe were killed in the vale of Surrey.

BRETON INSURRECTION, 1815.—An ably abridged account from a work by M. Rio in the Quarterly Review, enables us to continue the sketch of Chouan warfare. We

have spoken of the Chouan struggle in favour of royalty (p. 7), and of its suppression at the Loire, 1795. As the spirit of *chouannerie*, however, was on the eve, frequently after, of renewing the war, and especially in 1799, when an *émeute* took place, the revolutionary government of France was at length obliged to make terms with the Breton and Vendéan leaders, the essential condition being the toleration of their ancient priesthood. As soon as the amnesty was declared, those revered exiles, the Breton clergy, returned in great numbers; but they were found unequal to the spiritual wants of the population, and steps were immediately taken to breed up a class of assistants and successors. The college of Vannes, reopened in 1804, was one of the seminaries most effective for this purpose; and the favourite topics with the students were the oppressions and insults to which their pastors, including the fathers, brothers, and other near relations of most of them, had been exposed. Among the first who enrolled their names after the reopening of the college, were twelve Chouan chiefs, whose boyish studies had been suspended by the struggle, and who now returned to finish their education. Four of them were already known to fame, provincial fame at all events; and the admiration they inspired while relating their warlike feats, excited feelings by no means congenial to the sedulous cultivation of theology. Napoleon, whose great mistake through life was never to make allowance for what he called 'prejudices,' but which the steady portion of mankind designate 'principles,' kept the smothered flame alive by his intolerance. His ill-treatment of the pope, and his famous catechism, in particular, went far to prepare the way for a revolt; while his Spanish war was regarded with the most uncompromising abhorrence throughout Brittany. When the recusant Breton clergy had been expelled from their parishes, they

had been received with the warmest hospitality by their brethren in Spain; and it was consequently deemed little short of sacrilege to make war against a country so eminent for faith and charity. Resistance, therefore, became general throughout the Chouan provinces; and the Vannes collegians not merely partook, they anticipated the feeling of their countrymen. But no favourable opportunity for a demonstration presented itself till 1815, during 'the hundred days;' when the students broke into open revolt, formed themselves into a regular battalion, named a leader, and took the field. Nothing can be more affecting or spirit-stirring than the exploits of this chosen band. A set of boys engaged, not in the barring out of a pedagogue, but in the exclusion of an emperor;—defying, not birchen rods, but bayonets,—enduring the worst extremities of hunger and fatigue without a murmur; mounting to the assault of a fortified town with the gallantry of a forlorn hope; and covering a retreat like veterans. But we must bear in mind that these boys had begun life with other than the usual scenes of, domestic safety, quiet, and happiness; and perhaps there was not one among the band of students, whose feelings had not been scared and deadened to the ordinary run of youthful associations by some fatal remembrance,—whose infant imagination had not been kindled by some fearful vow,—who had not a father bleeding on the scaffold, a mother insulted by a brutal soldiery, or a brother perishing amid the snows of Russia, to revenge. 'Our generation,' writes M. Rio on the Breton *émigré*, himself a Chouan by descent and principle, whose grandfather had perished on the scaffold, a martyr to loyalty, and whose father had died of sufferings and privations in the cause, 'was too near to that which had supplied the victims of the Revolution, for the idea of a violent death by the hand of a soldier or executioner not to

have long since become familiar to us.' Madame de Staël says, 'that nothing is more irritating than the resistance of the weak;' and this is the only mode of accounting for the useless indignities heaped on the collegians. An attempt to make them do homage to the imperial eagle nearly caused an outbreak; but the crowning tyranny, the drop which made the cup overflow, was an outrage perpetrated on a comrade, who, after being cruelly beaten and kicked by the gendarmes, was expelled the college, and compelled to enlist as a soldier—for almost unconsciously wearing a few white flowers in his cap. 'A stranger,' says M. Rio, 'who mixed with the group of scholars on the evening of the day when Lemanach had to endure such ill-treatment, would have stood astounded at all he saw and heard; all those beardless faces, pale with anger rather than with alarm—the peasants turning up their long hair under their wide-brimmed hats, as if to prepare for a struggle—those whose hearts were most swollen with indignation, giving vent to it before an audience who replied sometimes by expressive gestures, and sometimes by tears, which rage as well as pity for their comrade wrung from them; and during this time the women of the lower class, ever watchful and devoted sentinels, keeping an eye on every window which opened above our heads, in the fear that some spy might gather up our words, which were, in fact, bold and uncompromising; for we spoke of nothing less than an armed insurrection, and we spoke of it with the full and firm anticipation of the consequences which might fall upon our heads.'

From this time an armed insurrection was resolved upon; and the resolution was carried into effect with a degree of energy and perseverance which excites our mingled admiration and astonishment. The entire number of students amounted to 600; but nearly half were necessa-

rily excluded from the enterprise on account of their extreme youth, despite of their animated and oft-repeated protest from Corneille,

'Je suis jeune, il est vrai, mais aux ames bien nées,

La valeur n'attend pas le nombre des années!'

About 350 were eventually declared fit for service; and to supply these with arms and ammunition was the first point. After clubbing the pocket-money of the entire establishment, and mortgaging or selling every article of personal property they could spare, they could only form a fund woefully disproportioned to the purpose; and then came the difficulty of investing it without exciting suspicion. They succeeded in buying a few muskets and fowlingpieces; but the greater number were obliged to rest satisfied with pocket-pistols. The arms obtained, they were ignorant of the most effective mode of using them, and were, moreover, unwilling to join the confederate army in the guise of 'an awkward squad.' But on what pretence could they apply for so much as a single drill-sergeant, and how long would their proceedings be tolerated by the governor, if they turned the college-yard into a parade? At length an expedient was hit upon. There was a Gascon officer in the garrison, who had made no secret of his disgust at the insults heaped upon them. Secure of his sympathy, one of their committee repaired to him with a complaint of broken health and failing constitution, for which the regular exercise of the musket and sabre had been prescribed. The goodnatured officer readily fell into the trap, and gave up an hour every morning to teaching him. Every evening the young recruit became teacher in his turn; the scene a cellar or a garret; the class a dozen of his comrades armed with sticks, with which they made ready, presented, charged, and indeed did every thing but fire and stand at ease, until their instructor had got hoarse with calling to them; forgetting, as M. Rio suggests, that

what they might learn in this manner, would be utterly useless in the kind of warfare in which they were most likely to be engaged. Next came the grand question, where were they to plant their standard? In what direction were they to cross the Rubicon? They could not revolt in the abstract; and every individual mode suggested to them, seemed fraught with impossibilities of its own. The notion of assembling in the middle of a plain, and declaring war against the government, was soon rejected by the wildest. There were enough soldiers in the neighbourhood to have eaten them up bodily; and even when the bulk of these had been drafted off to attend the emperor to Waterloo, it was deemed prudent to steal a march upon their enemies. It was proposed to begin by a night attack on a neighbouring fort, garrisoned only by a few veterans, where they expected to find arms and ammunition enough to supply both their own body and the auxiliaries who were sure to be attracted by their success. A leader, however, was indispensable; and they fixed on their friend the Gascon officer, as the fittest person for the post. 'The same lad, who had before excited his sympathy (says M. Rio), was commissioned to make the offer; and unbounded, as may be imagined, was the officer's astonishment. He remained at first utterly confounded, not with horror, which would have been more according to rule, but rather with admiration and pity; pity for our youth, and admiration at our audacity. Without affecting to be hurt at our doubts of his fidelity, he replied, with equal mildness and frankness, that he was bound to the cause which we wished to combat, by recollections he would never disown, and vows no temptation should induce him to violate. You have done wrong, he added in faltering accents, to place in me this confidence; you ought to know, that in not denouncing you, I not only betray my duty, but expose my-

self to be ignominiously shot at the head of my regiment. But never mind ; you have nothing to fear from me, except upon the field of battle, where I shall have simply to execute the orders of my commander.'

So ended their hopes in that quarter ; and no wonder they were puzzled on whom to fix them next, considering the qualities they demanded in a general. 'We required that he should be at the same time enthusiastic and experienced ; that he should have the heart warm, and the head cool ; and above all, that he should have a soul sufficiently elevated to tell, by our accent alone, that we were not traitors.' They found one, notwithstanding, in the chevalier de Margadel, the occupier of a neighbouring château, who had served with honour in the wars of La Vendée, and had commenced his military career in much the same manner they were anxious to commence theirs. 'His martial air, his almost gigantic stature, his large black eyes, full of fire, his firm and sonorous mode of speaking, and above all, his wound, from which he still limped a little, had long made him a highly interesting personage for those among us who had heard speak of his exploits.' He received the deputation rather coldly at first ; but as soon as he was convinced of their real character and intentions, he accepted their offer, gave them his full confidence, and offered to communicate on their behalf with the superior council of which he was a member. They returned overjoyed, and the news of their reception diffused a general feeling of hilarity ; but three mortal weeks passed away in the agony of hope deferred, and no summons to action arrived from the château. The chevalier was as impatient as his troop ; but he felt the folly of acting until the general movement had been combined. The hour arrived at last, precipitated by the indiscretion of the authorities. It was ascertained that forty or fifty of the more active students had been

proscribed, and were to be shipped off as conscripts to the colonies. This made further delay impossible ; as the Wednesday following the receipt of the intelligence was fixed for their departure. It is an affecting part of the story that, the grand point once decided, the first place of resort was the confessional. They thus prepared to meet death ; and after receiving plenary absolution at the hands of their spiritual fathers, who necessarily became acquainted with the plot, they held a meeting in the loft of an obscure house, for the purpose of taking an oath of fidelity. They here, one and all, swore never to make terms with the usurpation, and to die rather than abandon their comrades. At length the college clock struck four, the signal for each to make the best of his way to the place of rendezvous beyond the walls. In the course of the next three hours all of them managed to steal out unobserved. It was no business of the elderly ladies with whom they boarded, to reveal their suspicions ; and the alarm was not given until the next morning, when great was the surprise of the professors, and almost ungovernable the rage of the garrison.

It had been arranged that they should act in concert with the principal body of Breton royalists, now organized under general De Sol de Grisolles ; and, to effect a diversion in his favour, a party of the youngest and worst-armed of the students were directed to leave the rest, and show themselves in a different quarter, where they might be mistaken for an independent force. This manoeuvre was intrusted to an aspirant for the priesthood, named Quellec, who was suffering from a dangerous malady requiring the greatest care. 'A la garde de Dieu !' was his exclamation, as he tore a blister off his breast, before his pitying and admiring comrades. The main party assembled at M. de Margadel's château, where a beautiful little girl of fifteen, his daughter, put them in their own

eyes on a level with the *preux chevaliers* of the best age of chivalry, by adorning them with cockades made with her own fair hands. During the performance of this ceremony, the sun was shining as he shone at Austerlitz; and they began their march in the highest possible spirits, which were not diminished by finding smiling faces, a good supper, and good beds at the house where they halted for the night. But the morning had hardly broken, when they were obliged to prepare in good earnest for the hardships and dangers of the field. Their supper had been interrupted by the arrival of an express, to say that a hostile detachment was approaching; and the two youngest of the band were immediately posted on the look-out, about a musket-shot from the house. They watched all night in vain; but within an hour after they had been relieved, the enemy was upon them in overwhelming numbers, and the utmost they could do was to make their escape into the woods. After some hours of wandering, they came suddenly upon a valley, where the main body of Chouans was encamped. The young auxiliaries were of course received with the warmest sympathy; and though occasional misgivings were almost involuntarily expressed on the score of their tender years, they only served to make them pant for an opportunity of verifying the maxim expressed in their favourite couplet from Corneille. They did not wait long; for on the very day after the junction, they learned that a strong column from Auray was in search of them, crying 'Mort aux Chouans!' and promising to return shortly, each with one of the *scélérats* at the point of his bayonet. An attempt at surprise was disconcerted by the vigilance of the Chouans; but an action was inevitable, and their dispositions were made accordingly.

In the front, heading 200 or 300 peasants, marched Gamber, a peasant-chief of reputation and experience. Promoted to the rank of

brigade-general during the Breton *émeute* of 1799, he had treated both with the republic and the empire for the submission of his followers; but he would never consent to be included in the capitulation, and, traced from one lurking-place to another like a wild beast, he had escaped as if by miracle. Such was the terror he inspired, that four gendarmes, who on one occasion had tracked him to a cottage where they saw him quietly eating his dinner, could not pluck up heart to lay hold of him. The battle began by a close and unexpected fire upon the part of the line in which the students were posted. The Blues were concealed by the nature of the ground, and suffered their opponents to approach within pistol-shot before they fired. The student who commanded the advanced guard, though he had received a severe wound, and saw his friends falling round him, continued to give his orders, leaning on his carbine, with a coolness which inspired his little party with fresh confidence; and they gallantly returned the fire. Gamber and the other leaders hastened to take part in the combat, which raged with great fury for about twenty minutes. The younger Cadouhal (the son of George) was seen fighting at the head of his division, with no other weapon than a club; and, as none of the royalists had above a dozen cartridges at the utmost, they were obliged to come to close quarters without delay. Determined not to throw away a shot, they rushed up to the very teeth of their enemies, and seldom fired until their muskets were on the point of crossing. This desperate mode of conflict confounded the Blues, who at length gave way; but the conquerors were too much crippled to follow up the victory; and most of those who attempted a pursuit, were checked by the ardent desire to possess themselves of the muskets and cartridge-boxes of the slain. As for old Gamber, his strength failed him after a quarter of an hour's chase;

and he was found seated on a rising ground, with feet naked, breast bare, and face inundated with perspiration and tears of rage, groaning over the impotence to which his infirmities had reduced him, and hardly capable of being consoled by the victory. The general of the Blues was taken, and expected to be immediately put to death. On his tremblingly asking Cadouhal what they intended doing with him, 'There is only one thing for us to do,' was his reply—'to send you home; but tell me frankly,' continued the chief, 'would you, had you been conquerors, have treated us in the same manner?' 'It was my intention,' rejoined the general, casting down his eyes—'but I dare not say it would have been in my power.' His wounds were dressed with the greatest care by the chevalier de Margadel; and their next step was to repair to the neighbouring chapel of Saint Anne, to offer up a thanksgiving to the God of battles, and to obtain a renewed absolution from their sins.

This spirit of piety, although afterwards somewhat neglected by the Chouan leaders, had long rendered the Vendéans invincible. After a short time spent in collecting arms, it was resolved to attack the town of Redon. The students at once requested to be allowed to form the advance-guard; but that perilous honour was refused them, on the ground that the young blood destined to recruit the priesthood should be spared. The students were, nevertheless, the first to enter the place, amidst a shower of balls from the houses; and upon this the main defenders retreated, some to the tower or fort, and others to the town-hall. 'During the whole of the ensuing night,' says M. Rio, 'the intervals of silence were short and rare. Though we were under cover, the enemy kept firing in all directions, wherever the light or the noise led them to suppose there were Chouans. Sometimes they appeared to agree to fire together, and then the tower and town-

hall were momentarily lighted up like furnaces in the midst of darkness; and we roused ourselves with a bound at the outburst of these terrible explosions, conceiving them as simply the prelude to some sally.' The corps of Gamber slept in their ranks in the main street, sitting back to back, with their muskets between their legs; yet, when morning came, the tower and town-hall still kept firing, and the Chouans were compelled to evacuate the place. All their hopes were now fixed on the speedy arrival of a vessel laden with arms and ammunition, that had been promised; and they were drawing towards the coast to cover the disembarkation, when their courage was put to the proof, under circumstances which might have shaken the stoutest veterans. Separated from the enemy by a river, they were dispersed through a village, and asleep, when a sudden attempt was made to get at them across a bridge. Cadouhal was instantly on the spot with six of his best men, and succeeded in checking the advance, till the rest of the troops, including the students, had got under arms; but their situation was still precarious in the extreme. Gamber was at some distance with his battalion; and though Cadouhal might succeed in making good his defence of the bridge, there was another bridge at a short distance, by which the position might be turned. The latter post was assigned to the students; and they had not been two minutes on the ground, when the cannon-balls began to fall amongst them. By way of keeping up their spirits, a lad named Le Thié, the bard of the party, who had been high in the class of rhetoric at Vannes, struck up a song of defiance—

'Si jamais le fer d'un lance
Me frappe au milieu des combats,
Je chanterai—'

There ended his song: a ball shattered his head to pieces, and covered his comrades with his blood and brains. A momentary disorder was created by this event; and while

some stood stupefied with fear and horror, others hurried to raise the body. An old sergeant, who had assisted in drilling them, was scandalized by this breach of discipline: 'Is this, then, what you understand by war, young men,' he exclaimed, 'and are we come here to grow tender, and to have attacks of nerves? Come, face about!' And pride getting the better of fear and pity, the waverers returned to their ranks, braced rather than shaken by the catastrophe. They were condemned now to undergo the severest of trials—to watch the result of a battle by which their own fate would be decided, without the ability to take part in it. The enemy made a second attempt on the position of Cadouhal; and it was not until they had been again repulsed in that quarter, that they assailed with determination that occupied by the students. Making light of such opponents, they rushed at once upon the bridge; but before the head of the column was half over, they found reason to repent of their rashness. 'Follow me, my children,' exclaimed Margadel, 'and, springing forward, he shot the foremost dead. His young lieutenant was in the act of taking aim at the second, when he received a bullet through the heart, and fell back into the arms of his brother, who was mortally wounded almost at the same instant. By this time, however, the nerves of the band had become steeled, and they fought under a sort of phrensed intoxication, rushing, half blinded with smoke, and choked with powder, up to the very muzzle of their adversaries' muskets, and firing only when their own was stopped by the body of an enemy. When the fire slackened, and the smoke had cleared away, the Blues were seen retiring from the bridge; fortunately for the students, who had not above two cartridges apiece left. Expecting an immediate renewal of the attack, they were giving up all for lost, when the white caps of a troop of women appeared in the distance. It was

thought at first that they came to take care of the wounded; but it was neither lint nor food that their aprons were laden with—they brought *cartridges*, made upon the instant, in default of lead, out of their tin cooking utensils!

The situation of affairs was still most critical. Two cannons were brought to bear upon the students with effect; and under cover of a sustained discharge of grape-shot, the enemy's skirmishers were gradually closing in upon them, when the *vi-dettes* were seen galloping up to the imperial general with all the marks of confusion. Directly afterwards, the firing ceased, the wounded of the enemy were hastily got together, and the Blues were in full retreat. The mystery was soon solved by the appearance of old Gamber at the head of 500 picked men, who, without a moment's hesitation, pushed on to intercept and engage a force which quadrupled his own. His skill was fortunately on a par with his audacity:—so able were his dispositions, and so fiery his onslaught, that in five minutes the Blues gave way on all sides. The students, for want of ammunition, were unable to second him; and the chevalier had very considerably refused to expose them to be charged, in their disabled state, by a reserve of cavalry which kept hovering about the ground. 'A spectacle entirely new,' says M. Rio, 'both for conquerors and conquered, then presented itself. Children, whose hearts were choking with suppressed tears, protecting veteran soldiers who had just been killing their comrades. A grenadier with long moustaches, who appeared to suffer horribly since he had been pulled about by the elder Chouans with a view to plunder, was doubled up in a puddle of his own blood, his eyes closed, his hands convulsed, and his mouth open, not to cry mercy! but to blaspheme and curse. He believed that his executioners were still there, ready to torture him by new acts of violence. What was his astonish-

ment on opening his eyes, to see by his side, as his defender from further outrage, a lad, whose mild and feminine physiognomy scarcely announced fifteen years, and who, putting back the curious and ill-disposed peasantry with his carbine, traced around his protégé a magic circle that no man dared to cross! The old soldier burst into tears at the sight; and stammering out some words which were no longer curses, he searched his pocket and his pouch, as if looking for a watch or purse to offer to his protector. 'These brigands,' he exclaimed in a tone of regret, rather than of reproach, 'have left me nothing save this gourd: after five hours' fighting you must be both hot and thirsty: come my child (it was filled with wine), drink to my health: it will do you good and me too.' Even civil war is softened by such episodes as this; but it is melancholy to record, that, in the very next engagement, this gallant boy was numbered with the dead. One of the youngest of the students, named Leray, on being struck by a bullet in the side, began to cry; but as he had already given proofs of the highest courage, 'this indulgence of an instinct congenial with his age,' observes M. Rio, 'by no means diminished our admiration.'

The most fatal of their fights had still to come to the Chouans, namely the murderous conflict around and in the town of Auray. They were again posted with a river in their front; but there were now six bridges, in lieu of two, and, by a strange oversight, much like that which had not secured the grand cause of all their troubles in Elba, no one thought of destroying them. General Bigarre, the imperial commander, came in sight in the afternoon; but, as his troops were fatigued by a long march, he quartered them for the night in the cloisters of a neighbouring chapel, where the infidel Buonapartist leader shrewdly calculated the Chouans would deem it sacrilege to annoy him

by their shot. Gamber himself had no scruples of the sort, and proposed to scale the walls; but his opinion was overruled, and from that moment the old chief gave up all for lost. One of the patrols found him in tears, and inquired if any misfortune had befallen him? 'Not yet,' he replied, 'but I weep beforehand for that which cannot fail to befall us to-morrow.' At sunrise Bigarre issued from his quarters, resolved to force his way into Auray before night. The main body of the Chouans were posted directly in his path; but their cannon, on which they mainly relied, had not come up, and one division, that of Secillon, was seized with a panic fear and fled, their leader all the while standing aghast, and tearing his hair with rage. 'In his despair (says M. Rio) he told Rohu to fire on them; which he would certainly have done himself, had he had a loaded musket in his hands. With his remaining and best men, determined to compensate by their bravery for the defection of their comrades, he hastened to place himself by the side of Cadouhal, who fulfilled on that day much more in reality than De Sol, the duties of commander-in-chief, and was furious at the delay of the guns, on which he founded his last hope of victory. He had just ordered our major-general, De la Boissière, to gallop as fast as he could, and hasten the advance of the artillerymen, and the latter had turned to execute his commission with all the zeal of an aide-de-camp, when the leader Rohu, a most devoted soldier, with his characteristic roughness and suspicion, seeing him turn his back on the field of battle, ran, and fastened with a gripe on the mane of his horse, declaring that he should not move a step farther, and asking him if his title of marquis dispensed with his risking his person like the rest? There arose thereupon so great a tumult around the two disputants, that much precious time was lost in explanations, before the intractable Rohu could be induced to

let go his hold; a circumstance, as the Quarterly Reviewer justly observes, bearing a curious resemblance to an incident at Bothwell Brigg, where, as described by sir Walter Scott, Henry Morton's retrograde movement to bring up fresh troops, was similarly misconstrued. The Blues, meanwhile, had moved up, and were on the point of charging with the bayonet, when they received an unexpected check from Gamber. That chieftain opened so effective a fire on their flank, that, if the reserve and the artillery had been there to second him, the affair would assuredly have ended in their defeat; but their general, finding that he had greatly the advantage of numbers, kept his ground, and sent out such a multitude of skirmishers, that the Chouans found themselves outflanked and outmanœuvred in their turn. A vigorous charge of cavalry being made at the same time against the barrier in their front, they at length fell into irremediable disorder; and the road to Auray was covered with the fugitives. The guns arrived just as the flight began; and the gunners, firing one long shot by way of announcing their presence, galloped off in the direction of the town, which they traversed in haste, and forthwith deposited their trust in a field of corn close to the main road. Such was their hurry, that they did not even stay to unharness the horses; so that the enemy's attention was immediately attracted, and the whole artillery of the Chouans fell into their hands. The reserve, at the head of which were the students, was quartered in Auray. No orders had arrived to them until the streets were choked with runaways; when a staff officer gave the word, '*Les écoliers au Champ de Martyrs!*' which naturally enough struck a chill into their susceptible hearts. Margadel, who gave vent to a paroxysm of rage at every fresh blunder, now thought only of the best way of averting the useless sacrifice of his company. His first care was to put them on their

guard against the impetuosity of old Gamber: 'My children,' was his address, 'I insist on being your only leader to-day: promise me that you will not quit me during the action, and that you will execute faithfully whatever I may command.' An unanimous acclamation of assent was the reply; and they proceeded to post themselves on a ridge commanding the road, resolved on making the Blues pay a heavy toll before passing. They opened so close and well-aimed a fire on the foremost column, that it stopped short. An adjutant-major of the enemy was killed, the commander-in-chief received a wound long deemed mortal, and one of his aides-de-camp was stretched beside him. But the reserve of the Chouans, like the main body, was soon hemmed in by skirmishers; and a thick storm of shot descending upon them, they were almost blinded by the leaves and branches stripped by the missiles in their passage, from some chestnut-trees above their heads. Margadel, considering that enough had been done for honour, now gave the signal for retreat. The Blues followed close; but, a little nearer the town, they were encountered by another reserve, posted in a cemetery, which it cost them dear to dislodge. A gentleman of Auray, no soldier, M. de Molien, at the head of a few royalists, resolutely barred the passage of the Blues; and though repeatedly borne to the ground, yet again and again did he rush upon their bayonets, until he fell senseless, and was left for dead in the street. The place was carried; but the reserve kept together, and formed a rallying point, to which the disconcerted Chouans soon repaired in sufficient numbers to form a fresh army. After one more engagement, in which a party of the Blues were seized with an unaccountable panic, and rushed like madmen from the field, the struggle grew languid; and the news of Waterloo, and the second conquest of Napoleon, necessarily and naturally terminated the Chouan struggle.

M. Rio gives a most pleasing account of the meeting which took place between the officers of the two parties when the war had closed, at a kind of reconciliation festival. He states that the imperialist general, Rousseau, complimented De Sol on the fine bearing of his little army during the battle of Muzillac, and that he extolled the heroism with which the students had defended their position at the bridge. He then desired to know who had commanded a certain battalion of peasants, who, towards the close of the action, had forced him to beat a retreat? The Chouan officers were standing around him after dinner when he put the question, and, instead of replying to it, pointed to a bald and infirm peasant, who was sitting by himself in a corner of the room, his head leaning on his breast, and his hands hanging between his legs. 'How!' exclaimed Rousseau, approaching Gamber (for it was he), 'could it be you?' (for the general had no notion that Gamber had played any thing but an inferior part), give me your hand, man; I swear that no colonel of the imperial army could have done better!

When the cause of Louis XVIII. was once more safe, an officer was despatched to Vannes, for the purpose of selecting two students who had shown the greatest bravery in the Chouan contest, to receive the cross of the legion of honour. However difficult and invidious the task, where all had been so devoted, two were at length pitched on for the dignity; and they were soon after installed on an altar raised in the centre of the town, the beautiful daughter of the first magistrate of the department, Mademoiselle d'Olonne, investing them with the insignia, after the solemn performance by the clergy of an expiatory mass. One of the two so distinguished youthful band ('*quorum pars magna fui*' his motto), was M. Rio himself.

CEYLON MADE A BRITISH COLONY, 1815.—This valuable island, the Ta-

probane of Ptolemy, and the modern Singhala (according to the natives), is situated at the western entrance of the bay of Bengal, and is 390 miles long, and 140 broad. It is supposed that some singhs or rajpoots of Hindustan colonised it 400 B.C., whence its name. The interior is formed of ranges of high mountains, in general not approaching nearer to the sea than forty miles, with a belt of rich alluvial earth nearly surrounding the island, and well watered by streams. A picturesque table-land occupies the southern centre; to the west, the country is flat; and on the northern shore it is broken into verdant rocky islets, and a peninsula named Jafnapatam. The mountains are everywhere clothed to the summit with vast forests, from which issue magnificent cascades or foaming cataracts, that form in the valleys placid rivers, and babbling brooks, fringed with turf banks, and all the beautiful verdure of the tropics. From Tangalle to Chilau, 135 miles, the country is one continued grove of cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, and jack-fruit trees; and there are on the island quantities of gigantic cotton-trees, whose silky pods on bursting cover the earth around with their beautiful glossy filaments. Every village has its patch of sugarcane and tobacco; coffee grows luxuriantly, without care; and the pepper-vine and cardamom are found in all parts. The areca-nut surpasses that of Malabar; the rice of Ceylon is considered the best of the markets; and as respects woods—teak, ebony, satin, rose, sappan, iron, jack, calamander, and all the most beautiful cabinet kinds, are in rich profusion. Noble groves of the Palmyra palms surround the villages in the north of the island, and, like the cocoa-palms in the south, are of the greatest value to the peasantry in the time of drought. There is every evidence of Ceylon having been peopled in ancient times by a civilized race, from the remains of buildings. Pliny extolled it for the purity of its gold, and the size of its pearls—the latter

still found in excellence on the banks of Arippe; and Ovid mentions it as so remote, that his own fame would never reach it. In the reign of Claudius, the sovereign of Taprobane sent an embassy to Rome by the Red Sea. Among the works in Ceylon of a remote age is the lake of Kandely, near Trincomalee, fifteen miles in circumference, which is formed by the junction of two hills. The union is effected by a parapet of huge blocks of stone, in which arches are to be seen and conduits over them, similar to those used by the Romans in Italy, and now termed *condottori*. There is also a gigantic pagoda forty miles from Batticaloa, the base of whose cone is a quarter of a mile in circumference, surrounded by a broad wall of brick and mortar, a mile in circumference, with numerous cells in it, and an entering colonnade of stone pillars ten feet high. The first notice on which we can rely is that of Marco Polo, who visited Ceylon in the thirteenth century, and called it the finest country in the world. When the Portuguese first landed on the island, 1505, they found it had for a long period been declining, owing to intestine wars and invasions from Malabar and Arabia. The Cingalese king availed himself of the assistance of the Portuguese admiral (Almeida) for the expulsion of the invaders, promising, in return, an annual tribute of cinnamon. In 1518 the Portuguese, under Alvarenza, obtained complete possession of the maritime provinces, and drove the king of Kandy to such extremities, that he was glad simply to retain possession of the interior mountain-provinces. They held sway until 1657, when a strong Dutch armament, acting in conjunction with the king of Kandy's forces, drove them out. The Cingalese, however, soon found they had exchanged masters to no advantage; for from 1657 to 1796 the Dutch, who held only the coast, like their predecessors, were engaged in perpetual hostilities with their mountain-neighbours. In the latter year,

the English aided the Cingalese, and supplanted the Dutch; but in 1798, on the elevation of a new king to the Kandian throne, they became involved in hostilities, which led to their capture of the capital, 1803. The Kandians, however, soon compelled them to evacuate it and retreat, massacred 150 sick soldiers in the hospitals, and having at last surrounded the British troops, required them to lay down their arms. The commanding officer, Major Davie, unfortunately complied; whereupon the Malay troops were picked aside, and the whole English force were instantly massacred, excepting three European officers retained as prisoners, and one mutilated corporal, who made his escape to Colombo. Notwithstanding this awful issue, the British retained the maritime provinces, while the king of Kandy kept the interior; but in 1815, the monarch being deposed, on account of his repeated acts of oppression and cruelty (one was making the wife of his prime-minister pound to death her own children in a rice-mortar), general Brownrigg was invited by the Kandian chiefs to take possession of the capital; from which period, excepting an insurrection of the natives, which lasted from 1817 to 1819, Ceylon has been wholly subject to the English. The legislative administration is confided to the governor, aided by a council of Europeans, whose duty, however, is only to advise, since the governor may pass a law without their concurrence. The English governors have been: 1798, hon. Fred. North; 1805, sir Thomas Maitland; 1811, gen. John Wilson; 1812, sir Robert Brownrigg; 1820, sir E. Barnes; 1823, hon. sir E. Paget; 1822, sir J. Campbell; 1824, sir E. Barnes; 1831, sir J. Wilson; 1831, sir Robert Wilmot Horton. Colombo is the commercial capital of Ceylon, and seat of government, and is defended by a strong fort; but the marine capital, Trincomalee, is of greater importance, being, as the great Nel-

son said, 'the finest harbour in the world.' The Cingalese are Buddhists, and there are on the island many Hindus, Moors, Malays, Caffres, and even Chinese. The Veddas (the aborigines) dwell in the great forests, and use no clothes; and wild fruits and beasts are their sole sustenance. The cocoa-nut tree, of which it is said there are ten millions along a particular line of coast, furnish ninety-nine different articles to the Cingalese, including arrack, toddy, vinegar, brooms, ropes, lanterns, and Æolian harps! The staple commodities are paddy, coffee, cinnamon, pepper, cotton, and tobacco. Grapes are in perfection nine months in the year; the cinnamon of the island is the best produced; gold, iron, rubies, sapphires, and the topaz are found, and of superior quality; in a word, Ceylon has been emphatically designated (perhaps not without reason) the paradise of the Indies, and the garden of the East; and since it has become a British colony, it has been observed to flourish in a way even to outvie the presidencies of Hindustan.

THE IONIAN REPUBLIC FOUNDED, 1815.—It consists of seven islands on the coast of Greece, in that part of the Mediterranean anciently called the Ionian sea. They are under the protection of Great Britain; and an English lord high commissioner constantly resides at Corfu, with a British force of 3000 men. The islands are Corfu, Santa Maura, Cefalonia, Zante, Cerigo, and Paxo. Although all rugged, they are fertile; and the currants of Cefalonia and Zante (a minute grape dried) are famous in commerce all over the world. The religion is of the Eastern or Greek church; but the Roman or Greco-latin church enjoys equal protection. In Corfu and Zante, soap, to the value of about 12,000*l.*, is made and exported annually; also considerable quantities of common earthenware. The other manufactures of the isles are silk shawls, coarse linens, coarse woollen blankets, goat-hair carpets, and sacking. Agriculture is yet ex-

tremely rude, and the instruments of tillage as primitive as in the time of Ulysses. The olive is the principal product: the vine is planted generally in the valleys, and corn on the declivities of the hills. The legislative assembly of the septinsular union consists of forty members, including the president: the latter has 600*l.*, and each member 108*l.* per annum. The senate, or executive power, is composed of six; namely five, and a president, entitled 'his highness,' while the senators are styled 'prestantissima,' most excellent. His highness has a salary of 1560*l.* and a house; and each of his five coadjutors 765*l.* per annum. The sanction of the English lord high commissioner is necessary to the validity of a senator's election. Every isle has its courts of law; but at the seat of government there is, in addition to them, a superior or high court of appeal, denominated 'the supreme council of justice,' and consisting of four ordinary members (judges), two English, and two Greek, and two extraordinary members, viz. the lord high commissioner, and his highness the president of the senate. *Corfu* is thirty-five miles long, and at parts twelve broad, and has many mountains, and a quarry of fine white marble, well adapted for statuary; while variegated marble is found in small masses widely scattered. Earthquakes are frequent, and the climate tropical. Corfu is the ancient Coreyra, whose inhabitants, the Phæacians, are mentioned by Homer as a seafaring and hospitable people. The Corinthians built Coreyra, and the isle took the city's name. The Coreyræans were the most powerful naval people next to the Athenians. *Santa Maura* (the Neritos and Leucadia of the Greeks) is in extreme length twenty-three and in breadth ten miles. It is a mass of mountains, and the chief town, Amaxichi, is situated on almost the only plain, which is very beautiful, two miles long, and one broad, thickly covered with olives. *Cefalonia* (Homer's Samos) is the largest isle of the

septinsular union: its greatest length thirty-two, and breadth eighteen miles. It is extremely rugged and mountainous, and its harbour runs eight miles inland, but is difficult of access, though offering a spacious and convenient shipping-port. The entrance to the haven is extremely picturesque: on either side groves and plantations, relieved in the background by majestic mountains, meet the eye in varied succession. *Theuki*, the ancient kingdom of Ulysses (*Ithaca*), yet shows the gardens of Laertes, still fertile, the castle of Ulysses, and the fountain *Arethusa*. The last is a spring of the clearest crystal water, gently oozing through a simple arch of red stone, and meandering in graceful curves down a ravine, amidst magnificent plants of myrtle, broom, and arbutus. The isle is in extreme length eighteen and in extreme breadth only five miles: in some places it is not more than a mile and a half across. Its appearance is unprepossessing, being a single mountain, divided by volcanic influence into rugged and misshapen rocks. *Zante*, the ancient *Hyria* and *Zacynthos*, is twenty-four miles at its extreme length, twelve broad, and very mountainous. From its picturesque beauty, it has derived the poetical name of '*Zante, il fiore di Levante*;' and the city of *Zante* itself is very imposing when viewed from the sea. Since 1514 *Zante* has experienced twenty-one earthquakes. That in 1514 divided the hill on which the fortress stood, and buried part of the ancient town in the ruins. In 1767 the shocks were repeated for three months, during which an epidemic disease prevailed. In 1791 the great shock lasted several minutes, caused immense damage, and was followed by minor shocks for six weeks. In 1820 the earthquake, which once more desolated the island, was preceded by a single flash of lightning. That of 1837 lasted with great intensity for twenty seconds; and that of 1840 was the most disastrous of all. Petroleum and tar springs are abundant

in one of the valleys, similar to the asphalt of *Trinidad*; and so redolent is the isle of aromatic herbs, that the odour is experienced some miles off at sea. The *Zantiote* honey is celebrated for its delicious flavour; and its currants, oil, wine, and flax are in equal repute. *Cerigo*, the most southern of the union, is twenty miles long and twelve broad. It was called *Porphyris* by the Greeks (from its possessing abundance of that beautiful marble), and *Cythera*. According to some, *Cerigo* was first peopled by the *Lacedæmonians*, who, in the eighth year of the *Peloponnesian* war, were expelled by the Athenians, under *Nicias*. At a subsequent period it served as a retreat to *Cleomenes* of *Sparta*, when he fled at the approach of *Antigonus* of *Macedon*. The *Ptolemies* of *Egypt* were next lords of *Cerigo*; the Romans followed, and then the Venetians. The relics extant denote the former greatness of the place; *Pælo Castro*, a ruin north of the harbour, stands on the site of the ancient town of *Meneians*, whose faithless wife *Helen* caused the siege of *Troy*, and whose bath is still shown; and there is standing the remnant of a temple dedicated to *Venus Cytherea*. *Paro*, only twelve miles in circumference, consists of a single mountain, which probably at one period was joined to *Corfu*; and its harbour, *Port Gai*, affords anchorage for a few vessels. The inhabitants of all the islands are perfect Greeks, with olive complexion, dark full eyes, and beautiful teeth. They are mostly of the middle size, somewhat slender, extremely active, and very voluble and emphatic in speech.

HOLLAND AND BELGIUM UNITED, 1815, as the kingdom of the United Netherlands, under the prince of *Orange*, stadtholder of *Holland*; who thereupon assumed the title of *William I.* of the Netherlands.

THE HOLY ALLIANCE, 1815, was a solemn league entered into by *Austria*, *Russia*, and *Prussia*, now that the ambitious schemes of *Napoleon*

were frustrated, to preserve the balance of power throughout Europe ; and also to maintain the rights of sovereigns, which had been so unceremoniously invaded by the modern Charlemagne.

THE GERMANIC CONFEDERATION, 1815, was formed after the battle of Waterloo, to create a barrier against French aggression and propagandism ; and the first session of its legislative body took place 1816. The principal object of this meeting was to guarantee to integral Germany, divided into 39 states, external and internal security. Of the 39 states, two are large kingdoms, Austria and Prussia ; four are minor sovereignties, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, and Wurttemberg ; and the rest are grand-duchies, the electorate of Hesse, principalities, and free cities. Austria has eleven millions of people, and an army of 270,000 men in time of peace : its extent 3500 square miles. Prussia has ten millions, an army of 320,000 regular troops and landwehr, with 3333 square miles. Bavaria has four millions of people, an army of 54,000, and an extent of 1500 square miles. Saxony has a million and a half of people, a force of 13,000, and an extent of 272 square miles. Hanover has a population of a million and a half, a force of 30,000 including landwehr, and a surface of 690 square miles. Wurttemberg has a million and a half of people, an army of 5000, and a surface of 362 square miles. Among the duchies, Saxe-Coburg has 150,000, a force of 2500 men, and an extent of 49 square miles ; and Brunswick 251,000 people, an army of 3500, and a surface of 70 square miles. Frankfort, Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen, are free cities ; Hamburg having 10,000 soldiers composed of burgher-guard, and the others 600 men respectively. To sum up the whole, Confederated Germany contains thirty-five millions of people ; an army in time of peace of 770,000 soldiers, and in time of war of nearly a million ; and a surface of country

of 12,000 square miles. Each of the 39 states is bound to contribute, in war, one in every hundred of its population, to form an army ; and a further one in six hundred for a corps of reserve, when the troops of the first conscription shall have marched out.

ESCAPE OF COUNT LAVALETTE, 1815. He had been thirteen years postmaster-general under Napoleon, and having been instrumental in his escape from Elba, was reinstated in office. On the re-entry of Louis XVIII. into Paris, after the battle of Waterloo, marshal Ney and Lavalette were seized, and condemned to death : Ney was executed,—but Lavalette, fortunate in having an enterprising and affectionate wife, niece of the empress Josephine, escaped the hands of justice. As all solicitations to save his life had been sternly rejected, nothing now remained to the count but a fearful looking for death within forty-eight hours. Two days before the morning appointed for his execution, Madame Lavalette proposed the outline of escape which she had planned for the following night ; and although deterred by a conviction that it was impracticable, the count consented to her importunity. At five on the following evening this faithful woman, accompanied by her daughter Josephine and her nurse, appeared at the prison, dressed in a pelisse of merino lined with fur, and carrying in her reticule a black silk petticoat. These slight preparations were considered sufficient for disguise ; and her instructions were, that on going out, Lavalette should take hold of Josephine's arm, and followed by the nurse, walk very slowly, put on gloves, and cover his face with a handkerchief. In passing under the doors, which were very low, he was to take especial care to stoop, so that no risk might be run of breaking the feathers of the bonnet, an accident by which all might be lost. At the top of the staircase, a chair would be in waiting, into which he would probably be handed by the

gaoler. Soon afterwards, he would be conducted from it to a cabriolet which would convey him to a place of concealment.

Seven was the hour for Madame Lavalette's retirement; the clock struck six and three quarters, and she rang for the valet-de-chambre, whispered a few words, and added aloud, 'Take care that the chairmen be at their post, for I am now coming.' Then stepping to a part of the room, divided from the remainder by a screen, in less than three minutes she finished her husband's toilette, and showed him to the astonished and almost incredulous Josephine. 'We all advanced,' says Lavalette, 'towards the door. I said to Emilie, the gaoler comes in every evening after you are gone. Place yourself therefore behind the screen, and make a little noise, as if you were moving some piece of furniture. He will think it is I, and will go out again. By that means I shall gain a few minutes, which are absolutely necessary for me to get away. She understood me, and I pulled the bell. 'Adieu!' she said, raising her eyes to heaven. I pressed her arm with a trembling hand, and we exchanged a look. If we had embraced, we had been ruined. The turnkey was heard; Emilie flew behind the screen; the door opened; I passed first, and then my daughter, and the nurse. After having crossed the passage, I found myself in a large apartment, in the presence of five turnkeys, sitting, standing, and coming in my way. I put my handkerchief to my face, the child took my right hand, and the gaoler, coming down the stairs of his apartment, came up to me, and, putting his hand on my arm, said, 'You are going early, madame.' He appeared much affected, and undoubtedly thought my wife had taken an everlasting leave of her husband. It has been said, that my daughter and I sobbed aloud: the fact is, we scarcely dared to sigh. I at last reached the end of the room.

'A turnkey sits there day and

night in a large arm-chair, and in a space so narrow, that he can keep his hands on the keys of two doors.

This man looked at me without opening his doors. I passed my right hand between the bars, to show him I wished to go out. He at last turned his two keys and we got out. We had a few steps to ascend, to come to the yard; but at the bottom of the staircase there is a guard-house of gendarmes. About twenty soldiers, headed by their officer, had placed themselves a few paces from me at this point, to see Madame Lavalette pass. Having slowly reached the highest step, I went into the chair that stood a yard or two distant; but no chairman, no servant was there. My daughter and the nurse remained standing by the vehicle, while a sentry at six paces distant kept his eyes fixed on me. A violent degree of agitation began to mingle with my astonishment. My looks were directed towards the sentry's musket, like those of a serpent towards its prey. It almost seemed to me that I held that musket in my grasp. At the first motion, at the first noise, I was resolved to seize it. I felt as if I possessed the strength of ten men; and I should most certainly have killed any one who might have attempted to lay hands on me. This terrible situation lasted about two minutes; but they seemed to me as long as a whole night. At last I heard Bonneville's voice saying to me, 'One of the chairmen was not punctual, but I have found another.' At the same instant, I felt myself raised. The chair passed through the great court, and, on getting out, turned to the right. We proceeded to the Quai des Orfèvres, facing the Rue de Harlay. There the chair stopped; and my friend Randus coming up and offering me his arm, said aloud, 'You know, madame, you have a visit to pay to the president.' I got out, and he pointed to a cabriolet that stood at some distance in that dark street. I jumped into it, and

the driver said to me, 'Give me my whip.' I looked for it in vain;—he had dropped it. 'Never mind,' said my companion. A motion of the reins made the horse start off in a quick trot. In passing by, I saw Josephine on the quai, her hands clasped, and fervently offering up prayers to God. We crossed the Pont St. Michael, and were soon behind the Odéon theatre. It was not till then that I breathed at ease. In looking at the driver of the cabriolet, how great was my astonishment to recognise count Chassenon, who said, 'You have behind you four double-barrelled pistols, well loaded; I hope you will make use of them—and woe to him that shall attempt to stop your flight!' We entered the new Boulevard at the corner of the Rue Plumet; there we stopped. During the way, I had thrown off all my female attire, and put on a servant's dicky great-coat with a round silver-laced hat; and M. Bandus joining us again, I took leave of M. de Chassenon, and modestly followed my new master. It was eight o'clock in the evening; it poured with rain; the night was extremely dark, and the solitude complete in that part of the Faubourg St. Germain. M. Bandus went on so rapidly that it was not without trouble I kept up with him; but at length, after an hour's walk, in which I had lost a shoe, we arrived in the Rue de Grenelle, where M. Bandus stopped and said, 'I am going to enter a nobleman's hotel. While I speak to the porter, get into the court. You will find a staircase on your left hand. Go up to the highest story. Go through a dark passage which you will meet with to the right, and at the bottom of which is a pile of wood. Stop there.' I was seized with a sort of giddiness when I saw M. Bandus knock at the door of the minister for foreign affairs, the duke de Richelieu. While he was talking to the porter, who had thrust his head out of his lodge, I passed rapidly by. 'Where is that man going?' cried the porter. 'It is my ser-

vant,' said he. I quickly went up to the third floor, and reached the place that had been described to me. I was scarcely there, when I heard the rustling of a silk gown. I felt myself gently taken by the arm, and pushed into an apartment, the door of which was immediately shut upon me. I stepped up to a fire, which cast a faint light around the room; and having placed my hands upon the stove to warm myself, I found a candlestick and a bundle of matches. I guessed that I might light a candle; and having done so, I examined my new abode. On a chest of drawers I found a paper, on which was written, 'Make no noise, never open your window but in the night; wear slippers of list, and wait with patience.'—The mystery was soon explained: he was sheltered under the roof of M. Bresson, treasurer for the department of foreign affairs, a former deputy of the national convention, who had been proscribed for voting against the death of Louis XVI. His wife, having found refuge with him in a family among the mountains of Vosges, who faithfully protected them during two years, had made a vow to save some political offender, if such were ever thrown in her way; and she now fulfilled it. M. Bresson appeared not long afterwards; he had just quitted the drawing-room of the minister, and had witnessed the consternation exhibited when the escape was announced. 'Not a soul,' he added, 'will go to bed to-night at the Tuileries; your flight is believed to be the signal for the explosion of a great plot! open only half your shutters, and if you catch cold, put your head into this closet when you cough.'

The discovery of Lavalette's escape from the Conciergerie had been most rapid. Scarcely had he passed the outer gate, when the gaoler entered his cell, and retired, as it had been foreseen he would do, on hearing a noise behind the screen. In about five minutes afterwards he returned; and although the noise was repeated,

he looked behind the screen, perceiving Madame Lavalette, dashed through the door with an exclamation that he was ruined, left the skirts of his coat in her hands when she sought to detain him, and despatched turnkeys and gendarmes in general pursuit. The sedan was overtaken, but it contained only Josephine; and during the night, the houses of every friend, acquaintance, and official connexion, were searched ineffectually. On the following day the barriers were shut; and Madame Lavalette was subjected to examination, and put into solitary confinement.

Sir Robert Wilson, and Messrs. Bruce and Hutchinson, all English, having agreed to complete the work of deliverance by conveying the count out of the reach of the French authorities, it was at eight in the morning of January the 10th, 1816, that, after taking leave of his friends the Bressons, Lavalette, in the uniform of the British guards, stepped into sir R. Wilson's gig, Mr. Hutchinson being on horseback. As the shops were open, and the streets full, the dress of the guards drew a salute from every English soldier they passed; and two officers appeared struck with surprise at seeing a comrade with whom they were unacquainted, in company with sir R. Wilson. On the right and left of the *Barrière de Clichy* were two guard-houses, occupied respectively by French and English, who drew up under arms as the carriage approached; the former luckily were national guards, of a different quarter of the city to that of which Lavalette was an inhabitant, and who were not likely, therefore, to be acquainted with his person. 'At last, next morning,' continues the fugitive, 'at seven o'clock, we arrived at Valenciennes, the last French city on that line of frontier. I was beginning to feel more easy, when the postmaster told us to go and get our passports examined by the captain of the gendarmerie. Fortunately the officer signed the passports without

rising from his bed. We got clear of the gate, and flying along the Brussels road, reached the frontier—we were on the Belgian territory—I was saved!' Lavalette found an asylum first at Munich, and subsequently at Augsburg; and after a six years outlawry, was permitted to return to France, where he died 1830. A severe blow awaited his return. The reason of Madame Lavalette had been affected by her sufferings and anxiety; and some years passed before she could resume the duties of domestic life.

GENOA ADDED TO SARDINIA, 1815. —We have shown (vol. ii., p. 41), how Andrea Doria, the Genoese admiral, surprised the French garrison, 1528, and delivered his state from the yoke of France. He thereupon converted the tyranny of Genoa into an oligarchy. From the year 1339 the little dominion had been headed by a doge, who was elected boldly by the people and installed for life, in order to crush the factions of both Guelfs and Ghibellines. The aristocracy was thus excluded from power, the doge conducting the government without any regular council of nobles. This plan of rule existed nearly two centuries, but not without frequent contentions between the principal citizen families, especially the Adorni and Fregosi, who proved just as factionous and troublesome as the patricians had done. Several doges were elected at a time, some were exiled, and others were forced upon the community by an armed faction. The neighbours of Genoa, the Visconti of Milan, and the kings of France, taking advantage of those feuds, at various times obtained possession of the little state. At last Andrea Doria, as before said, drove out the French, 1528, and, to avoid a recurrence of the former feuds, established a biennial dogeship, in lieu of one for life, with a council of nobles to assist; which council might be shifted, abstracted from, or added to, if found requisite, in opposition to the system adopted at Venice, where

the high families of the council were immoveably and hereditarily fixed. This form existed from Doria's revolution until the invasion of Italy by the French under Buonaparte, 1795, a period of no less than 267 years. The revolutionary French, on this occasion, joined the democracy in a rise against the doge and council; but as the very lowest classes supported the aristocracy, a terrible slaughter of some days' duration ensued, and the democracy and French were discomfited. The French Directory hereupon, under pretence that 'the honour' of the French republic was concerned, took up the part of the democracy, and sent a competent force into the city of Genoa, with an ordinance, compelling a thorough change in the institutions of the state. A republic was instantly formed, and protected by a French garrison; but in 1799 this garrison, having Massena at its head, was besieged in Genoa by the united Austrians and English, and was obliged to capitulate. In the next year, 1800, when Buonaparte had gained the battle of Marengo, Genoa was again given up to the French; whereon Napoleon, then Consul, gave a new form of government to the territory, leaving it a kind of nominal independence, under the title of The Ligurian Republic, but making it far less democratic than before, even allowing it a doge. When emperor of France, in 1805, the same ambitious leader required the formal annexation of the Ligurian Republic to France; and, with the farcical form instituted by the modern Charlemagne, the doge Durazzo repaired, as if of his own accord, or by the order of his state, to Milan, where

Napoleon had just been crowned king of Italy, with the iron crown of the Lombard monarchs, and stated, 'that the Genoese senate and people ardently but humbly desired to be united to the Great Empire.' These wishes were immediately granted; and the state was formed into the three French departments of Genoa, Montenotte, and the Apennines. In 1814 Genoa surrendered to the English forces under Lord William Bentinck; and in the following year, by a decision of the congress of Vienna, it was united to the Sardinian monarchy, and has ever since continued part and parcel of it. The city of Genoa is situated partly on the declivity of several hills, rising in the form of a semicircle round the spacious harbour, and partly on a narrow strip of ground between them and the sea. It is enclosed on the land side by a double line of fortifications; the external one being above eight miles in length. The higher Apennines rise immediately behind, dividing the waters which run to the Mediterranean by the valleys of Bisagno and Polcevera, from those which flow northwards into the Scrivia and the Bormida, two affluents of the Po. Upon the summits of these mountains, which are near enough to command Genoa, are several detached forts. The appearance of Genoa from the sea is exceedingly beautiful. The union of the territory of Genoa with Sardinia, restored to nearly its pristine form, after the revolutions of 3214 years, the ancient sovereignty of Liguria. The Genoese port of Liburni, or Leghorn, is now in the dominions of the grand duke of Tuscany.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, AND USAGES.

WOOD ENGRAVING IMPROVED, 1790, by John and Thomas Bewick, of Newcastle-on-Tyne, two brothers who published a history of quadrupeds, with the woodcuts for the first time in relief; in consequence of

which they could be worked together with the letter-press. These specimens, many of which consisted of vignettes, worthy of the first artists in point of design, were equal in delicacy to copper-plates, and have

been since copied in oil on an enlarged scale by various painters. The art, after this important help, has gone on improving; and there is now a depth and richness in our wood engraving, which renders it often superior, especially in architectural drawing, to the productions of both steel and copper. (See *Thomas Bewick*.)

THE LIFE-BOAT INVENTED, 1790. This was the production of Mr. Greathead; and the vessel, so important in cases of shipwreck, can neither be upset nor sunk, will row both ways, and is thirty feet long and ten broad.

THE DEAF AND DUMB ASYLUM FOUNDED, 1792, in the Kent-road, near London, for the support and education of the children of the poor, so afflicted. Deafness obtains in a larger degree throughout the world than is usually supposed, special returns constantly making the proportion of deaf persons one to 1537 in the population of Europe at large, and in the United Kingdom 1 to 1622. It is fair, therefore, to say, that in every civilized state there is 1 in every 1500 persons, who is deaf either from birth or infancy. Since articulation by speech can only be acquired by those who hear it, dumbness is the necessary consequence of born or early deafness. In cases even where deafness supervenes at a period after articulation has been acquired (at the age, for instance, of four or six years), the power of speech is gradually lost, and the voice becomes monotonous. In establishments, therefore, purposing to educate the deaf and dumb, pictures, bodily attitudes, signs made with the fingers, &c., are used as auxiliaries; many pupils have even been taught, by watching the throat, lips, &c. of the speaker, to articulate sounds with sufficient clearness to be understood. Cardan, 1550, was the first to call attention to means for instructing deaf and dumb persons; John Bulwer and Dr. Wallis were the first in England,

about 1670, to introduce plans for the same benevolent object; and the abbé de L'Épée, and his successor the abbé Sicard, 1780, in France, seem to have improved upon all former systems, and to have been the most important labourers in this task of humanity.

THE TELEGRAPH INVENTED, 1793, by M. Chappe, a Frenchman, or at least first used by his recommendation, as a national mode of communicating intelligence. The word is from the Greek *tele*, distant, and *grapho*, to write; and the improved instrument of late years has been called a semaphore, from *sema*, a sign, and *phero*, to bear. Though telegraphic communication, as a means of conveying every species of required intelligence, is an invention of modern date, the use of signals for the speedy transmission of brief messages previously arranged between persons, is derived from the most remote antiquity. Thus we read of beacon-fires in the prophet Jeremiah, who directs the Benjamites to 'set up a sign of fire in Beth-haccerem;' and Æschylus, in his *Agamemnon*, has a fine description of the application of a line of fire-signals to communicate the fact of the fall of Troy. In the middle ages, the fire-beacons of the Scots, which, in the form of a cross, passed along height, and hill, and cliff, to warn against the approach of the English forces from the border stations, and the sacred bell-clangour, 'The Somnaten,' also of the feudal times, and rung so recently as in the last year in Catalonia, when the Barcelonese (See *Spain under Espartero*) were in insurrection, were but the prototypes of the modern telegraph and semaphore. M. Chappe's telegraph, the precursor of the rest, is called, from its position when at rest, the T telegraph; and it consists of an upright post, at the top of which is pivoted, by its centre, a transverse beam; and this beam, worked in a chamber below by ropes, is made to assume any required angle with the post. Either end of this

moveable beam has a short arm, capable of assuming any required angle with it; and these arms are worked in like manner by ropes,—a contrivance by which, without the use of any angles of more than 45 degrees (which might be indistinct when viewed through a refractive atmosphere and from a distance), no less than 256 different signs can be made. As M. Chappe, however, proposed communicating intelligence letter by letter, and used an alphabet of only 16 letters, a much fewer number of signs would have been sufficient. His first machine communicated the news from the Netherlands to Paris in one hour, of the recapture of Lisle by the troops of the republic, 1794. An improved telegraph by the Rev. J. Gamble, chaplain to the duke of York, and which was subsequently simplified by lord George Murray, was adopted by the British government, and placed on the Admiralty, London (the first time of using telegraphs in England), 1796, and worked on a line to Dover. This is known as 'the shutter telegraph,' because consisting of six octagonal shutters, made to work up and down in a frame, and to express signs by their being in a vertical or horizontal position, or by one or more of the shutters being closed, while the rest are raised. Sixty-three different signals are shown by this apparatus. The British government, however, in 1816, resolved on employing the kind of telegraph called *scaphore*, which had also emanated from the French, but had been greatly improved by sir Home Popham. That instrument now occupies the Dover station up to the Admiralty at Charing-cross, and consists of a vertical post, having two arms pivoted thereto, one at the summit, one in the centre. As these arms are apart, they can each assume six different positions; and the two together are able to present forty-eight signals, expressing events, partly in the letters of the alphabet, and partly in Arabic numerals, and that so

clearly and concisely, that thirteen signals are left unappropriated, for abbreviations and arbitrary signs. As secrecy is often required in telegraphic communications, the parties working the respective instruments on a line, only copy what they see through a telescope to be the signal of the nearest news-reporting erection; so that only the instructor of the first, and the secretary of the last telegraph, are acquainted with the nature of the intelligence transmitted.

VACCINATION BROUGHT INTO NOTICE IN ENGLAND BY DR. JENNER, 1798.—A periodical work, published at Gottingen by M. Steinbach, made mention, 1769, of the singular immunity that all such tenders of cows had from the infection of smallpox, however epidemical, as had caught from the udders of the animals an eruptive pustule upon the hand or arm. Dr. Barry, of Cork, too, asserted, that a disorder called *Shinagh* had prevailed from time immemorial in Ireland, having the same origin and the same effects. But Dr. Jenner, who had long resided in Gloucestershire, brought the discovery fully before the British public, after watching for many years the escape of various persons concerned in the care of the cows in his neighbourhood, during the rage of virulent smallpox. It is sufficient to say, that after nearly forty years' trial, vaccination has been found, with very few exceptions (provided it has had due encouragement and protection, by the firm prohibition of inoculation for the smallpox), a perfect protection from the scourge of smallpox; and such as have had a relative or friend maimed for life, either in intellect or limbs, by the latter disease, will not hesitate for an instant to try the effect of the vaccine inoculation on their offspring, and to thank God that they have thus a chance of escape from one of the most destructive and loathsome of human maladies. Even in the winter of 1840-1, when smallpox raged more in the metropolis than had been

known for a century before, only seven in an hundred of those who had been vaccinated, died : while of those so unprotected, forty-five out of the hundred fell victims.

THE BLIND SCHOOL, LONDON, FOUNDED, 1799, for the instruction of the blind children of indigent persons in basketmaking and other handicraft trades, by which they may obtain a livelihood ; an institution truly honourable to our nation. Let him who doubts respecting *vaccination*, visit this school, and inquire into the causes of early blindness amongst the objects of the charity ; and he will quit it convinced that any approach to a succedaneum for a disorder so often fatal in its consequences as the smallpox, should be hailed as a blessing. It has been a question as to which of the five senses, of seeing, hearing, feeling, smelling, and tasting, would be most regretted, if it pleased God to deprive us of either ; and we believe that the chance of happiness under the loss would be found, little as would be expected, in favour of the blind. The blind, if they have health of body, are constantly cheerful ; the result, probably, of being out of the power of the innumerable petty peace-annoying objects which present themselves to the eye, and constantly disturb the serenity of the mind. In proof of this assertion, hypochondriacs are never found amongst the blind : and Dr. Reid, in his elegant essays, gives an example of a blind man exclaiming, when he was told of people having *fancied griefs*, 'Sir, put out their eyes, put out their eyes, and they will soon be happy !' A society for the blind at Glasgow has printed no fewer than 10,850 volumes for the use of blind persons, the letters of which are raised, so as to be felt and *read by the fingers* of the pupils ; two months only are required to enable a child of ordinary mental powers to acquire the art ; and in a recent trial at the London Tavern (under Mr. Lucas's system), a chapter in the Bible being

selected at random, some blind pupils read the eighth chapter of Romans, verse by verse in rotation, without an error.

THE PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY, LONDON, FOUNDED 1799, in St. George's Fields, for the benevolent purpose of rearing in habits of religion and utility, the offspring of convicted felons. With this view, 160 children are instructed in the principles of the Established Church, clothed, and entirely maintained within the walls of the institution, from infancy to a competent age ; the male portion being instructed fully in five distinct trades by competent masters. Would to Heaven the national school system were on the same basis, however few the pupils ! By the instrumentality of this most excellent association, thousands of wretched children have been snatched from the jaws of destruction ; and when it is considered that society has been in an equal ratio benefited by the conversion to character and virtue of a large portion of its worst members (for '*improborum improba soboles*'), the debt of the public to the Philanthropic Society is immense. If any of man's imperfect works dare be regarded with pride, surely the institution in question, the Magdalen, the Asylum for Female Orphans, the School for the Indigent Blind, and Bethlem Hospital for lunatics—five godlike charities—all within sight of each other, might be thought to plead to Heaven, like the five righteous of Sodom, for its mercy upon the great city in their vicinity, with all its glaring and secret vices—vices not peculiar to our own metropolis, but common, as we all admit, without an imputation upon our charity, to all places which accumulate, in a comparative space, a vast mass—more than a million—of men.

LITHOGRAPHY INVENTED, 1800.—Aloys Senefelder, a German stage-player, observing that calcareous stones had the property of receiving greasy lines, and, by pressure, of transmitting them to paper, made the ex-

periment with ink, and obtained equally accurate impressions. The stones made use of are chiefly found in Bavaria; and their surface being ground level with fine sand until a grain appears, they are sent to the lithographer, who, with a greasy chalk, draws or writes on them as he would upon paper. The printer, before striking off his impressions, throws an acid solution over the drawings or writings, to fix them; and 5000 copies may then be taken from them, before they are worn. The art is now constantly applied to circular letters, etchings, &c.; and the Bavarians assert that their late king, Maximilian, discovered it, and revealed it to Senefelder. However this may be, it has been greatly advanced in character by Mr. Hullmandel's invention of *litho-tinting*; whereby originals are given instead of copies. This improvement was made in 1841; and works of architecture, &c., by the execution of a brush upon stone, may now be illustrated by drawings, which cannot be impaired in the process of printing, and which do not depend upon copying artists for their fidelity to the originals.

THE NEW LONDON DOCKS FOUNDED 1800, for merchant-shipping chiefly trading throughout Europe. The West India Docks were opened in 1802, and the East India in 1806.

THE MILITARY ASYLUM, CHELSEA, FOUNDED 1801, by the duke of York, for the education of 1000 boys and girls, children of soldiers, orphans, or whose fathers are serving on foreign stations.

GAS-LIGHTING INTRODUCED, 1802.

—The inflammable gases were known originally for their direful effects rather than for their useful qualities. Miners were acquainted with two of them, called the *choke damp* and the *fire damp*, long before the establishment of the Royal Society; but Mr. Murdoch was the person who first applied gas to the purposes of illumination. This gentleman, residing at Soho, near Birmingham, covered the works of Soho, on occasion of the

celebration of the peace of 1802, with a splendour that astonished the population of the surrounding country. Early in 1809, Mr. Clegg, of Soho, communicated to the Society of Arts his plan of lighting manufactories with gas; and, after a good deal of dispute, a bill was passed in parliament to incorporate the London and Westminster gas-light and coke company. From comparative darkness, the metropolis, on a sudden, emerged each night into a state of brilliant illumination; while nooks and alleys, that had never seen even the light of the sun, shared in the general lustre. The perpetual full moon of gas at once extinguished the twinkling oil-lamps of the parish, which, like the lighthouses of the ocean, had acted as warnings rather than guides. In a word, Mr. Murdoch's discovery has suppressed more vice than the Society for the Suppression of Vice itself: rogues cannot bear the light, and have thus, by a method similar to the Roman one, which made houses of ill-character *transparent*, been routed from their dens. 'Why,' says a facetious writer of our day, 'has not old Murdoch his statue? In other days such memorial would have equalled the Colossus at Rhodes, and the demi-philosopher would have breathed flame like the Chimera: in the fabulous ages before that, he would have come down to us a demigod, the rival of Prometheus, Hercules, and Atlas!' The existence and inflammability of coal-gas were noticed so early as 1650 by Shirley, and in 1690, by Dr. Clayton and others. Every organic inflammable substance, whether coal, wood, oil, wax, &c., when exposed to distillation in closed vessels, yields an inflammable gas, composed of hydrogen and carbon; but coal, as being more abundant, and most easily obtained, has been hitherto most employed by gas-makers. Early in the eighteenth century, the men at work in the collieries of sir James Lowther, at Whitehaven, were alarmed at seeing a sudden rush of what seemed air,

catch fire in passing their candles ; and as the phenomenon recurred, a shaft was made to carry such streams out of the pits. The stream readily ignited, on placing a candle at the top of the shaft ; and for three years it continued burning, during which time the peasantry of the neighbourhood contrived to draw off portions of the unconsumed gas in little pipes, which they conveyed home, and burned in lieu of candles.

But Winsor, a German, was the first who contrived to make coal-gas sufficiently attractive to the inhabitants of the metropolis ; and Pall Mall was the first street lit thereby, 1807. Companies soon started up, to carry out the principle on the largest scale ; and by 1820 every street and alley in the metropolis was illuminated. The nightly consumption of gas in the great city is about eight millions of cubic feet, and, perhaps, in the few longest nights of winter, nine millions. Oil has been much used, as well as coal, for the production of gas ; but though the process of making from it is far more simple than that resorted to in the case of coal, the material is found too expensive for general use. Of the various species of coal, cannel coal most readily and abundantly yields the gas. Full 180,000 tons of various coal are consumed in the year to supply the London lighting ; the gas-pipes of that metropolis in 1830 were upwards of 1000 miles in length, in 1840, 2,800,000*l.* of capital were employed in gas-works, pipes, &c. ; the yearly revenue derived is 450,000*l.* ; 380 lamp-lighters are employed, and about 2500 men are engaged in the gas manufactories. About the year 1830, a great improvement was promulgated, under the title of 'the Bude light,' so called from its inventor. The government's attention being at length called to the latter, a specimen of it was ordered to be erected at the Horse Guards, Whitehall, whereby the clock at that station was beautifully illuminated (the light being placed before it), as if by the clear light of the moon. The Bude light,

as improved by Mr. Gurney, 1842, is likely to supersede even common gas. It was first an oil Argand flame, having a stream of oxygen thrown upon its internal surface ; but Mr. Gurney, substituting ordinary coal-gas, purified in an apparatus of his own construction, contrived to light the house of commons for 12*s.* per night, in lieu of the old cost by wax candles of 6*l.* 11*s.* An Argand gas flame emits a light equal to ten wax candles—the Bude of Gurney, one equal to 94.

STEAM CARTS, 1804, were first used on railroads, for the transportation of mine-produce, such as iron, coals, &c., at Merthyr Tydvil, South Wales, by Messrs. Trevithick and Vivian. This must be regarded as the first humble practical attempt of the steam locomotive system.

HAILESBURY COLLEGE FOUNDED, 1806, by the East India Company, at Great Anwell, Herts, for the education of such as are intended for the civil service in India. The students amount to 103, who are under the superintendence of a principal, and several professors. The company's college for military students is at Addiscombe, near Croydon, Surrey ; and that institution is in like manner governed by a principal and professors.

PHRENOLOGY FIRST PROMULGATED, 1810. Erigena, who lived in the time of Alfred, has, in his work 'De Divisione Naturæ,' given the figure of a skull, with the places marked as the residence of six properties of the human mind ; and naming these as he does, 'imaginativa, cogitativa, estimativa,' &c., we may presume that Dr. Gall, who in 1810 published at Paris his system of craniology, thence borrowed at least his peculiar phraseology. Craniology, or the science of the skull, has now received the more definite title of phrenology, or the science of mind ; and although Dr. Gall was its founder, Dr. Spurzheim became his so able auxiliary, as to be regarded in the like light. Considering the outward form of the

human skull, in an adult, to be an index of the mind of the individual, these gentlemen divided the head into thirty-three compartments, assigning to each its peculiar power. These divisions take the name of organs, and, according to their indications, are called the organ of amativeness, of philoprogenitiveness, destructiveness, &c.; of which it is enough to say, that the phrenologist makes them the origin of both virtues and vices,—destructiveness, for example, being in its *use*, the removal of obstacles and the annihilation of evil; in its *abuse*, cruelty and murder. Since the science seemed not only to strike at the root of 'free-will, but to call in question the benevolence of the Deity, it had at first, and still continues to have, many opponents; and as no practical good is likely to result from its cultivation, few need lament, if, like the kindred system of Lavater, it should fall into disrepute. The utmost point to which we would go with phrenologists is to admit hypothetically their assertion, 'that the brain consists of a congeries of organs; that each organ manifests a particular mental faculty; and that, other conditions being equal, the power of manifesting each faculty bears a proportion to the size of its organs.' But we think the attempt to elevate *craniology* (its only authentic designation), into the rank of a new philosophy—to set it up as something opposed to, or superseding any other methods of investigation—to be highly preposterous. Whatever have been the magnificent results promised from the boasted 'science of mind,' nothing but sheer puerilities have in 30 years appeared; and the extravagances of phrenologists have served considerably to enlarge our notions of the possible extent to which human folly may go. The accidental result of a more strict attention to the faculties of the brain on the part of physiologists, may certainly be placed to the credit of Gall and Spurzheim, together with

the benefits to science which are thence still flowing. Before the researches of phrenology, for instance, the spinal cord was regarded as a prolongation or process of the brain; whereas the investigations of comparative anatomy, &c., prove it to have been formed previously to and independently of the cerebrum. Its connexion with the brain cause it to be closely associated with the actions of that organ; but it nevertheless possesses peculiar and highly important properties of its own. (See *Gall*.)

STEEL ENGRAVING, 1810.—Mr. Dyer, an American merchant residing in London, obtained a patent this year for an improved method of using plates and presses, the principles of which had been communicated to him by Mr. Jacob Perkins, also an American, who soon after became celebrated in England for what is called roller-press printing, by hardened steel plates. In engraving by copper-plates, the lines become speedily worn; and if many impressions are to be thrown off, the plate requires frequent retouching, and even then the latter impressions are inferior. Engraving by pressure has obviated this difficulty. An engraving is first made upon soft steel, which is hardened by a peculiar process. A cylinder of soft steel is now made to roll slowly backward and forward over it, thus receiving the design,—but in relief. This is, in its turn, hardened without injury; and if it be slowly rolled to and fro, with strong pressure, on successive plates of copper, it will imprint on a *thousand* of them a perfect facsimile of the original steel engraving from which it resulted. Thus the number of copies producible from the same design, is multiplied a thousand-fold. But even this is very far short of the limits to which this process may be extended. The hardened steel roller, bearing the design upon it in relief, may be employed to make a few of its first impressions upon plates of *soft steel*, and these, being

hardened, become the representatives of the original engraving, and may in their turn be made the parents of other rollers, each generating copper-plates like their prototype. Seeing that the engraving on copper could hardly afford 20,000 copies, the engravers were naturally at first alarmed at the idea of preparing a steel plate that would at least afford ten times that number of impressions. But this circumstance, by enabling the booksellers to produce highly-embellished works at low prices, induced the public to take off large impressions, and has increased ten-fold the business of the engravers, and fifty-fold that of the old copper-plate printers.

STEAM-BOATS FIRST USED IN ENGLAND, 1811.—Although Mr. Hull made an experiment in 1786 with steam-boats, it was not until 1807 that the Americans proved their safety and service. The merit of constructing them is due to Mr. Bell of Glasgow, who sent his model to America, and who built the *Comet*, 1811, the first practical steam-boat in Europe, to navigate the Clyde. Subsequent years have wrought innumerable improvements in the machinery, iron being often used in lieu of wood; and from navigating canals and rivers, they have been put forth to plough the great deep. The advantage of steam, as applied to navigation, consists in the ability of a steam-vessel to proceed during calms, at which periods the sail-ship, depending upon the wind for impetus, is powerless. This was the second practical approach to the great and important invention of steam railway carriages.

NATIONAL EDUCATION COMMENCED IN ENGLAND, 1811.—For many years previously, a quaker named Lancaster had attempted the education of poor children on an enlarged scale, by certain mechanical means; and as the plan was spreading, and left out religious principles, some members of the church of England commenced a mode of tuition of a more

hopeful kind, which has now become a national affair, few parishes in the kingdom being without their national school. Dr. Bell, who had superintended similar establishments at Madras, became the setter off of the first one in England, at Lambeth. Subsequently have been founded what are called 'infant schools,' which undertake the care of children from the age of two years, and thus prepare them for the national ones.

Nearly thirty years have passed, and the problem is by no means solved, whether the indiscriminate instruction of the lower classes be the road to national prosperity. That guilt has not diminished in amount since the spread of book-knowledge is clear enough, on viewing the returns of the number of culprits annually committed to prison in England and Wales. Crimes of an open and atrocious character, those of mere violence and force, have diminished in frequency, it is true; but surely offences of fraud and fictive pillage have become more prevalent than ever. We hear no more of highway robbery: but forgery, embezzlement, the robbery of masters by their servants, and other devices of cunning, are matters of every-day occurrence. At the same time, the suicides of mere children, whose intellectual powers have been cultivated before their judgment is ripe, and whose education has caused them to loath their low condition, are the constant theme of every newspaper of the kingdom.

It is to be feared, therefore, that the more extensive cultivation of the public mind has merely shifted delinquency from one class of crime to another, and supplanted the wickedness of brute courage by the more insidious manœuvres of polished cunning. The instruction of the lower classes is steadily pursued by our national system from four to fourteen—ten years; and it breaks off at that precise age when presumption and pretension begin. Then come in the way of the pupils the

books which teach them, that so long as they shall attempt to earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, so long shall they be in a degraded condition. If compelled, notwithstanding, so to get their living, they read, as a consolation, that 'labour is wealth;' and, misinterpreting the phrase, (which can alone mean, if it mean any thing, that wealth is only capable of being created by those who, possessing some capital, apply it to the purpose of combining the exertions of the industrious for their own advantage,) they come to the conclusion that those who labour, ought to be the possessors of all the land and treasure of the country,—labour being, in itself, but another shape of money, and convertible, like a bank-note, into gold. In the majority of cases, discontent, and a distaste for vulgar occupations, are the result of such school learning as is now afforded to the poor; besides undutiful conduct to their more ignorant parents, an aspiring spirit, an envious hatred of their betters, and, finally, a conduct wholly in opposition to those religious and moral principles instilled into their minds at the outset of their lives. Much has been said of the Prussian scheme of general education, and of its wondrous effects on a people who had been without religion for thirty years, and whose preference of military conscription to voluntary enlistment, proves that they had degenerated into a mere living machinery. Education is all the Prussians care for—based on religion, the Romish priesthood have taken care it should be; but they have been unable to obtain more than that the clergy shall not be excluded from the committees of instruction, 'because,' says M. Cousin, the champion of the Prussian system, 'they have a right to be there, and to represent the religion of the country.' But we hope to be allowed, in any English system of education, to have what alone is to be endured—positive, established, acknowledged forms of religion, not indefinite sentiments of it; and we would have religion re-

cognised, not on the ground of political expediency, but of its individual necessity, and its spiritual truth. Otherwise all will be not only vain labour, but mischief. Religion thus the basis and *sine qua non*, it next behoves to consider well what sort of education we give the children of the poor. All may be well, if the boys be prepared to make good artisans, constables, overseers, and jurymen; and the girls to become good housemaids, washer-women, and plain needle-women; most solemn care being taken that each be thoroughly convinced of the importance of speaking the truth, and duly impressed with the awful responsibility of an oath. *Infant Schools* have been seen to produce very beneficial effects upon the character, when properly conducted. They have obviously corrected many a moral defect, which, through the negligence of poor parents, might have become an ineradicable vice; while they have formed the temper, and originated habits of application and obedience, that have been found favourable to the subsequent progress of the children, whether in book-learning at the maturer schools, or, which is far better, in gaining a knowledge of some useful art in the world. But with even this praise, it is almost a doubt whether *Sunday Schools* have not effected more substantial good, limited as their influence has hitherto most unaccountably been, than has resulted from the combined efforts of the national and infant-school plans. Why are not Sunday Schools powerfully supported? and why are those simple village establishments, formerly known as *Schools of Industry*, in which poor girls (more especially) were taught, on the week-days, at spare hours, to spin cotton, &c., so totally overlooked? Finally, under any system, it is essential that an uniform dress should be adopted by the children, whether at the public or their parents' cost. This would put an end to that disgusting rivalry in frippery which the organ-gallery of our

churches usually displays, and be a powerful check at other times on the conduct of the pupils, when free from the restraint of masters and mistresses, and roving about their town or village.

VAUXHALL BRIDGE FOUNDED, 1813, by prince Charles of Brunswick (subsequently the expatriated duke), and completed in 1816. It was at first called the Brunswick-bridge; and the cost was 300,000*l*. It is a light and elegant structure, having nine arches of cast iron, each of seventy-eight feet span: and the whole length is 809 feet.

THE LAW OF COPYRIGHT.—In 1814, an act (54 Geo. III, c. 156), passed to establish that from July 29th of that year, the author of any book, and his assigns, shall have the sole liberty of printing and reprinting such book for the full term of twenty-eight years from the day of publication, and, if the author shall be living at the end of that period, for the residue of his natural life. Should the author die within the twenty-eight years, his assigns to have the benefit till their expiration, and the work then to become public property. The protection thus given to authors is coupled with the condition that the publication be registered at Stationers' Hall, London, and that eleven copies of the work be given up for the use of—the British Museum; Sion College; the Bodleian Library at Oxford; the Public Library at Cambridge; the Advocates' Library at Edinburgh; the four Scotch universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrews; Trinity College, Dublin, and the King's Inns, Dublin. Mr. Sergeant Talfourd endeavoured, in 1839, to obtain an act for putting literary property on the same basis as all other property, asserting truly enough that the produce of a man's own brain was essentially his own property; but there were too many interested parties to oppose the measure, and it fell to the ground. Viscount Mahon, with great spirit, supported Mr. Talfourd, and observed 'that while neither the great

Marlborough, nor any subsequent conqueror or statesman, regarded the glory of his services as a sufficient reward, but looked for and received pay from the country, it was hard that authors, who did so much moral good, should not at least enjoy what was so essentially their own.' He also showed that in France the copyright went to the author and widow for life, and to their children after the decease of the survivor for twenty years: in Sweden and Denmark, it was the perpetual property of the author's family. But though the benevolent parties alluded to, failed to influence the house of commons, a very important measure was carried 1842, in behalf of literary property. This was the putting a stop to the shameful system of pirating English works in foreign countries; which spurious copies found purchasers in England, from their cheapness, far more readily than the originals. A penalty of 10*l*. per volume for every so pirated work found in the shops of circulating libraries, or other places of sale, or reading, has at once produced a remedy for the evil.

THE SAFETY LAMP INVENTED, 1815.—Sir Humphry Davy, during a lengthened inquiry into the nature of 'fire-damp' in coal-mines, which occasions terrible explosions, accompanied often with great loss of life, discovered that if a lamp or candle be surrounded with wire gauze, or with metallic plates, perforated with numerous small holes, though the gas or fire-damp may explode within, it will not inflame the surrounding atmosphere without. Upon this principle he formed the safety-lamp; and it has completely answered the benevolent purpose of the inventor. The saving of human life effected by this providential discovery has been great indeed in amount; and if monuments of brass and marble are at all due to man's perishable renown, the grateful countrymen of Davy, and the civilized world at large, might aid, without a blush, in perpetuating his honoured name.

PARALLEL REIGNS,

TURKEY UNDER SELIM III. AND MUSTAFA IV. SELIM III. ascended the Ottoman throne, on the decease of his father, Ahmed IV., 1789; and determining upon continuing the war with Russia, he attacked in person the united forces of Suvarov and Coburg on the Pruth, but was repulsed. The battle of Rymnick, where Suvarov again distinguished himself, and obtained from his empress the addition to his name, was fought soon after; and though the grand visir Yusef, with the Koran in his hand, rode among his troops to animate them against the infidels, the rout was complete. In rage and despair, Yusef caused his own men to be fired upon by two field-pieces, in the vain hope of rendering them more afraid to fly than to fight. Nevertheless fly they did; and Yusef, being afflicted with an asthma to a degree that rendered sitting his horse a painful action, the fugitives bore him off in their arms, abandoning their camp, and 68 field pieces to the enemy. Belgrade almost instantly after surrendered to marshal Laudohn, and Bender to Potemkin. In the winter of 1790 Suvarov invested Ismail, some leagues below Galatz. The frost, however, came on so rapidly, before he had completed the investment of the place, that he was about to abandon the siege, when Potemkin, in one of his eccentric humours, sent him a peremptory command, to take the place at all hazards. Suvarov knew he must obey; and, judging that his only chance was to deceive the Turks into a temporary security, he made a show of erecting batteries, though he had not a single piece of heavy ordnance in his army. The garrison was immense; and the governor, a venerable old pacha, in reply to the besieger's summons, swore by his grey beard, in the presence of the messenger, and passionately exclaimed, 'Go back and tell him who

sent thee, that the Danube shall cease to flow before I will yield Ismail to an infidel.' Suvarov, having completed his arrangements, issued orders for an assault to be made during the night of the summons; and the flotilla cannonading the river defences, while the ditch was filled with fascines, ladders were lodged, and the ramparts speedily carried by the Russian troops. But the Turks only became more desperate on being beaten from the wall; and the contest was prolonged with dreadful carnage in the streets and houses, until the venerable governor himself, after a resolute defence, was forced by the flames to surrender. No sooner had this occurred, than Suvarov despatched a messenger to Potemkin at Bender, with this laconic despatch: 'The Russian standard waves on the ramparts of proud Ismail!' A victory on the Danube, gained by Repnin at the same juncture, completed the humiliation of the Porte; and a peace was concluded at Yassi, by which the Sultan consented that the Russians should extend their bounds to the Dniester, and keep Georgia, and that the privileges of Moldavia and Walachia should be confirmed. The Porte noticed not the French revolution, until its troops had taken Cefalonia from Venice. Selim then, for the first time, made an alliance with the Russians, sending his fleet to assist the Emperor Alexander in expelling the invaders of Syria. The Turkish defence of Acre soon after, in alliance with the British, will always be looked upon as an unfading laurel. The Turks, however, had entirely lost the art of managing their armies in the field; and their forces having been annihilated by Kleber and other French generals in Egypt, the Sultan was at length compelled by Napoleon, 1807, to act against Russia, and even to give orders to fire upon the British vessels

under admiral Duckworth, which had approached Constantinople. Just at this juncture, Selim, who had long been trying to introduce European tactics into his armies, in opposition to the wishes and prejudices of the Janizaries, (whose tyranny he had greatly repressed), saw that turbulent soldiery, after some sanguinary riots, again obtain the ascendancy. He thereupon resigned his throne to his nephew Mustafa, and was about to take poison, when the latter, with a magnanimity seldom seen in Turkish revolutions, dashed the cup from his uncle's lips, and assured him of his friendship and protection. **MUSTAFA IV.** thereupon succeeded 1807, and fell at once into the views of the French government. The Russians, however, beat his fleets; and it was fortunate for him that the treaty of Tilsit came to stay his disasters. In 1808, Selim fell a victim to the seditions of the Janizaries, headed by Bairacter Pacha, who having strangled him, and deposed Mustafa, placed Mahmud, the brother of Mustafa, on the throne.—(See *Mahmud II. Khan*).

THE POPEDOM.—Giovanni Braschi, a native of Cesena, succeeded, on the decease of the celebrated Clement XIV., Ganganelli, to the papal chair, 1774, as Pius VI. His period of rule was one of the longest, as it was one of the most unfortunate, in papal history: and the well-known Latin adage, 'Semper sub Sextis perdita Roma fuit,' has been thought fully verified by his pontificate. His government was marked by popular measures: he repressed abuses, and completed the noble museum of the Vatican, begun by his predecessor, by the collection of vases, medals, statues, and monuments, and which now changed its name from 'Museo Clementino' to that of 'Museo Pio-Clementino.' Canals were constructed; the Appian way was repaired, or rather a new road was built, forty miles in length, with rows of poplars; and houses were erected for the convenience of travellers. But the

greatest of his undertakings was the draining of the Pontine marshes; a district between the Apennine mountains and the sea, overflowed with water, and exhaling pestilential effluvia, which gave rise to numerous diseases, and often actually depopulated the surrounding country. But while thus gaining popularity at home, storms were gathering in the political horizon abroad, which threatened, not only to disturb, but to subvert the hierarchy. In 1782, Pius made a visit to the emperor Joseph II. at Vienna, to endeavour to dissuade him from the prosecution of some ecclesiastical reforms which he meditated; but the journey was wholly useless; beyond the fact of the emperor being sensibly struck by the virtues and benevolence of the holy father. In like manner the emperor Paul of Russia, and other princes, were witnesses of his piety and moral worth. So noble a disposition and character eminently fitted Pius to meet the trials which soon after assailed him. In France (the revolution having commenced), the confiscation of the property of the church, and the suppression of the religious orders, in virtue of the decrees of the National Assembly; in Germany, the congress of Ems for the abolition of the Nunciature, in 1785; in Naples, the contempt of his authority by withholding the customary tribute of a horse; and in 1791 the loss of Avignon and the county of Venaissin, which were wrested from Rome, and united to France,—were so many terrible warnings of the coming destruction. The same guiltless spirit which had hitherto prompted the actions of this father, now led him to oppose his comparatively feeble power to the wickedness of French principles: he stood forth the determined opponent of the Revolution, received with the utmost display of kindness the banished priests of France, and listened with calmness to the intelligence of the threatened vengeance of the republican government. Buonaparte was directed to attack the Roman states;

and after taking Urbino, Bologna, and Ancona, he offered peace to the pontiff, on condition of his paying a large sum of money, and of sending to Paris the choicest pieces in painting and sculpture at Rome. A reconciliation thus tyrannically effected, proved not of long duration. The French ambassador, Basseville, was massacred, 1793, in a popular tumult at Rome; and though the matter was not noticed at the moment, general Augereau, after the victories of Buonaparte 1796, marched into the territories of the pope, who, unable to resist, was glad to accept of an armistice. Pius having renewed hostilities, Buonaparte attacked and beat his troops at Senio 1797, and proceeded towards Rome. He stopped, however, to treat with the ministers sent by Pius; and in February was signed the treaty of Tolentino, by which the see lost Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara. In consequence of another commotion, in which general Duphot was killed, Joseph Buonaparte, the French ambassador, quitted Rome; and general Berthier, having entered the capitol, February 1798, proclaimed the establishment of the Roman republic,—which was henceforth to be governed by consuls, a senate, and a tribunate. Pius, after being some weeks a prisoner in his palace, was removed, amid the bewailings of the populace, to Siena; and, through the rapacity of the French soldiery, not having even a change of linen left him, the ladies of the capitol, though only apprized of the holy father's intended departure, a few hours before the event, completed for him an ample supply of apparel of the finest quality.

From Siena, Pius was conveyed to the Carthusian convent near Florence, where he was kept a whole year, and then taken across the Alps into France; and when assailed at Briançon by a ferocious mob, denouncing vengeance to kings and to religion, the benign appearance of the father converted the mad rage of his oppressors into admiration and

reverence. It is an indisputable fact, that this fierce rabble had intended to tear the pontiff piecemeal; but when, in all the majesty of one fully resigned to the will of God, Pius stood before them at their bidding,—their countenances fell, the spirit of revenge forsook them, and the whole multitude sank simultaneously to the ground, to implore his forgiveness and his blessing! From Briançon the father proceeded to Valence, where he was permitted to rest; but as is common under such circumstances, the shock of his calamities began then first to be felt. He fell sick, and in eleven days was no more. His decease occurred in his 82nd year, August 29, 1799; and his remains were buried by Buonaparte's order at Valence, though they were eventually removed to Rome in 1802, with great funeral pomp.

Meanwhile Rome had been restored, by French madness and mockery, to its ancient republican form; and Berthier, the French general, had ascended the Capitol, followed by a large retinue of officers, and after proclaiming the Roman republic 'the sister and ally of France,' had said something in praise of 'the descendants of the Brutuses and the Scipios.' Songs, illuminations, and balls concluded the ceremony. When, therefore, news of the death of Pius VI. reached Italy, the conclave being summoned to assemble at Venice, then under the dominion of Austria, cardinal Gregorio Chiaramonti (born 1742, of a noble family of Cesena, and who had exhorted the people to be faithful to the new institutions, when Buonaparte had annexed the Legations to the Cisalpine republic, whereby he had acquired that general's good opinion) was, after some months' deliberation, chosen to fill the papal chair, March 1800, as Pius VII. In the following July he entered Rome without opposition, and made cardinal Gonsalvi his chief secretary; and in 1801, after the peace of Luneville, Buonaparte withdrew his troops from all the states of

the church but the Legations. In the same year Napoleon, to put an end to the religious anarchy of France (where many dioceses had no bishops; others had two; some of the constitutional priests were latitudinarians in principle as well as in practice; others had married, contrary to the canons of the council of Trent; some professed Jansenist principles; and a vast number of parish churches were shut up, and had been so for ten years; and, in the midst of this confusion, more than one half of the populace followed no mode of worship, and professed no religion whatever), induced Pius to send his legate to Paris, to concert a Concordat with his brother Joseph and Bernier, a Vendéan priest. That between Francis I. and Leo X. being taken as a basis, a new arrangement of French dioceses was effected; cardinal Gonsalvi arrived and smoothed down all difficulties; and the document being ratified by the pope in August, the Gallican church was settled on its present footing.

From 1801 till 1804 Pius enjoyed tranquillity at Rome, and employed it in restoring order to the finances, in ameliorating the judicial administration, and in promoting the agriculture of the Campagna. His personal establishment was moderate, his table frugal, his habits simple, and his conduct exemplary. In May, 1804, Napoleon was proclaimed emperor; and some time after, he wrote to the pope, requesting him to crown him solemnly at Paris. After considerable hesitation, Pius consented, and set off from Rome at the beginning of November. The coronation took place in the cathedral of Notre Dame; after which the pope spent several months in Paris, visiting the public establishments, and receiving the homage of men of all parties, who were won by his unassuming yet dignified behaviour. In May, 1805, he returned to Rome; and his troubles began soon after. In October, a body of French troops suddenly took military

possession of Ancona. Pius remonstrated by a letter which he wrote to Napoleon, who was at that time at the head of his army in Austria. It was only after the peace of Presburg that he received an answer, in which Napoleon said he considered himself the protector of the church against heretics and schismatics, like his predecessors from the time of Charlemagne: and that, as such, he had occupied Ancona, to prevent its falling into the hands of the English or Russians. Soon after, Napoleon required Pius to expel from his dominions all English, Russian, Swedish, and Sardinian subjects, and to forbid his ports to the vessels of all powers then at war with France. An angry correspondence ensued, which lasted more than three years, Napoleon continually uttering threats against the papal state (being too much engaged in other affairs to do more at that time); until, when at Vienna, May 1809, he issued a decree, declaring the remaining states of the church for ever united to the French empire, and leaving to Pius his palaces, and an income of two millions of francs (80,000*l.* sterling). As Pius hereupon fearlessly issued a bull of excommunication against all the perpetrators and abettors of the invasion of Rome, the French commander, Miollis, afraid of a rising of the people, who were unequivocally attached to their sovereign, thought it expedient to remove Pius from the capitol. General Radet was entrusted with the abduction of the pope, who had shut himself up in his palace of the Quirinal. At three o'clock in the morning of the 6th of July, some men scaled the walls in the greatest silence, broke open several doors, and having opened the great gates, let in their comrades from without. The Swiss guard made no resistance, having orders to that effect from the pope. General Radet penetrated to the apartment in which Pius was, and found him in full dress, surrounded by several attendants. The general told him respectfully that he

had orders to remove him from Rome, unless he consented to sign an abdication of his temporal sovereignty; and on the pope saying he could not do that, Radet told him he must depart immediately. 'I then yield to force,' replied Pius; and, taking his breviary under his arm, he accompanied the general to the gate, where his carriage was ready, and drove off under an escort. He was taken first to Grenoble, in Dauphiné, thence to Savona, in the Riviera of Genoa, where he remained till June, 1812, and then was removed to Fontainebleau. During his stay at Savona, Napoleon convoked a council at Paris of the bishops of his empire; but he found that assembly less docile than he had expected, and he dissolved it without any conclusion being come to. The great question was, how to fill up the vacant sees, when the pope refused the canonical institution. The pope, at the same time, would not recognise Napoleon's divorce from his first wife Josephine. In short, Napoleon found that unarmed priests were more difficult to conquer than the armies of one half of Europe. 'Strange, but true,' writes Botta, 'the independence of the church on this occasion was the only remaining prop of general liberty; and if the ecclesiastical authority had given way, no check was left against an universal and overwhelming tyranny.'

On his return (Dec. 1812) from the Russian expedition, Napoleon visited Pius at Fontainebleau, and treated him with such marked attention, that at length he prevailed on him to sign in January, 1813, a new Concordat, the chief articles of which were that, in six months after the emperor's nomination of a bishop to a see, he should receive canonical institution; that the pope should have the nomination of ten sees of France and Italy; and that an amnesty should be granted to all cardinals and clergy who had incurred Napoleon's displeasure in the late controversies. This new document was published by Napoleon with all speed;

but when Pius had held a conclave at Fontainebleau, he was induced by the cardinals to retract some of his concessions, as contrary to the canon law, and proposed a new basis. Napoleon, however, took no notice, except by exiling some of the cardinals; and soon after set off for his army in Germany. It was only after the expulsion of his forces from that country, that the falling emperor proposed to restore the papal states south of the Apennines, if the pope would agree to a Concordat. Pius answered, that he would not enter into any negotiations, until he was restored to Rome. On the 22nd of January, 1814, an order came for the pope to leave Fontainebleau the following day. None of the cardinals were allowed to go with him. He set off, accompanied by an escort, and was taken to Italy. On arriving at the bridge over the river Nura, in the state of Parma, he met the advanced posts of the Neapolitan troops under Murat, who was then making common cause with the allied powers against Napoleon. Murat had taken military occupation of the Roman state; but he offered to give up Rome and the Campagna. Pius, however, preferred stopping at Cesena, his native town, until the political horizon had cleared up; and after the abdication of Napoleon, and the peace of Paris, he made his entrance into Rome, May 24, 1814, in the midst of rejoicings and acclamations; and his faithful Gonsalvi soon after resumed his office of secretary. By the articles of the congress of Vienna, the whole of the papal states were restored, including the Legations, which were not however evacuated by the Austrian troops until the fall of Murat in 1815.

The remaining years of Pius were spent in tranquillity, though not in idleness. He applied himself to adapt, as far as it was practicable, the civil institutions of his dominions to the great changes which had taken place in their social state. He confirmed the suppression of feudal ju-

risdictions, abolished every kind of torture, and promulgated a new code of civil procedure, 1817; but he soon after found it necessary to restore the old system of proceedings in criminal matters, as well as the power of the ecclesiastical courts, though he greatly altered the plan of the Inquisition, and held firm to the abolition of torture and death for offences concerning religion. He also concluded a new Concordat with Bavaria, Naples, and other states; and, by a bull, condemned the Carbonari and other secret societies. This worthy father, who had been able to do, and who did so much more than many former popes, and who bore with meekness the insults and injuries of his potent and ungenerous adversary, died (from a fall in his apartments) universally esteemed for his piety and Christian charity, aged 81, July, 1823.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVI., CONCLUDED, AND UNDER LOUIS XVII., THE REPUBLIC, AND NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE.—We stated, in our last notice of the French nation, that its awful revolution had commenced, 1789, the great repository of arms at the Hotel des Invalides having been plundered, and the state prison of the Bastille invested by ferocious mobs. The latter, after an obstinate contest, was taken July 14th, De Launay, the governor, being instantly murdered, and his head borne in triumph through the city. On the morning after this event, king Louis attended the national assembly, without betraying any uneasiness: he lamented the disturbances which had occurred, disavowed all knowledge of any meditated attack on the deputies, and gave orders that the troops should quit the capital. From his ability, however, to effect the removal of the soldiers, he must have been, notwithstanding his declaration, under the influence of the revolutionary party; and the fact is the more evident, when we notice the monarch's singular progress to Paris from Versailles, three days after the sur-

render of the Bastille, being that on which the razing of that ancient fortress and prison was commenced by an order from the 'permanent committee' of Paris—the long parliament of the French. In a plain dress, having only two carriages, and followed by a part of the national assembly on foot, he was met at the Sève by the marquis La Fayette, at the head of the Paris militia. Accompanied by 20,000 rabble, the procession entered the capital, amid shouts of 'Vive la nation!' M. Bailly, the mayor, saying, as he presented the keys to the monarch, 'Henri IV., when he received these keys, came to reconquer his people: we, however, have the happiness to reconquer our king.' The same officer, after this ambiguous compliment, presented him with the national cockade, and the bonnet-rouge, or cap of liberty; and when Louis, having alighted from his carriage, showed himself at a window of the palace with these badges of patriotism, cries of 'Vive le roi!' resounded in all directions, for the first time on that day.

The citizens now resolved on returning with the monarch to Versailles in the evening, with a greater degree of attention to the order of procession; and the king was apparently pleased with this display of attachment to his person. The indiscretion, however, of a party of officers, who, dining with their majesties on the 1st of October (a few days after the visit to Paris), drank the health of the king, queen, and dauphin, with drawn swords, and distributed white cockades (the Bourbon emblem) to the crowd about the palace,—like the match applied to the mine,—kindled the actual flames of revolution in the capital. Exaggerated as the conduct of the officers was,—feasting, as they were reported to have done, in the most sumptuous manner, while the citizens of Paris were starving,—the populace was roused to acts of violence in an instant, at the mere call of an old fish-woman. Eight hundred females set

off in a body, on the afternoon of October 5th, for Versailles, to demand bread; while a band of the same amazons rushed into the galleries of the national assembly, exclaiming that they had eaten nothing for upwards of twenty-four hours. The deputies, to allay the tumult, ordered an immediate supply of provisions to be distributed in the hall; while the crowd on the outside, seizing upon one of the horses of the guards, roasted it, and greedily devoured it. A deluge of rain closed that awful evening; and towards midnight tranquillity was restored, as far as the capital was concerned. But at Versailles a fearful scene was transacting. The queen had just retired to her bed, to endeavour to snatch intervals of rest, broken by the cries of the furies who paraded in the court below, demanding bread, when M. de Miomandré, the officer on guard near her chamber, suddenly shouted to the ladies in waiting, 'to save the queen.' In an instant after, Miomandré and Du Repaire, who were attempting to oppose the party of rabble that had burst into the gallery, fell covered with wounds. As Miomandré was expiring, one of the assassins, in his haste to finish him, blew out the brains of an associate who was stooping to stab him. Meanwhile the queen escaped by an opposite door, and joined the king; who was surrounded by friends in another apartment. The palace was soon after cleared of the assailants, and some soldiers under La Fayette appeared in the court beneath: the troops, however, expressed equal disapprobation with the mob, and a call for the queen obliged that heroic princess to show herself alone in a balcony to the rabble. The king and dauphin soon joined her there; and all gave pledges to the people that they would follow them in the morning to the capital. A ball from some scoundrel soon after struck the wall close to the window where the queen was standing; but nothing could induce her to

relinquish her dangerous post to M. de la Luzerne, the minister of marine, who loyally endeavoured to exchange places with her. '*That is your place,*' she coolly replied, pointing to the spot whence he had come, '*and this is MINE, monsieur.*'

It was from this balcony that the domestics of the palace saw, on the following morning, the sad procession of their captive master and king, with his family, move slowly down the Avenue de Paris, surrounded and at every step insulted by the furies and butchers of the crowd, and preceded by the heads of the brave Deshuttés and De Varicourt, who had been decapitated in cold blood by the rebel Jourdan Comptète, as a sacrifice to the manes of the villain who had been shot by mistake. Such was the ferocious nature of the mob, that it halted for a moment to compel a hairdresser to curl and powder the two heads, 'to give dignity to their triumph;' and the man had no sooner executed the task, than he fell into a fit and expired. At length the cavalcade and its accompaniments reached Paris once more; and affairs proceeded somewhat more calmly, when the common people saw that the monarch felt an interest for them.

The only event of 1790, was the solemn ceremony, in the Champ de Mars, to celebrate the fall of the Bastille; at which Louis took the civic oath, in the presence of 40,000 spectators. The grand affair of 1791 was the attempted escape of the king with his family from France. On the 21st of June, in different disguises, the king, the queen, Madame Elisabeth, and Madame de Tourzel, governess of the royal children, accompanied by her pupils, successively left the palace, agreeing that they were all to unite at the Petit Carrousel. The queen and her guide, a lifeguardsman, being neither of them familiar with the streets of Paris, missed their way, and were long before they reached the rest of the party, to whom their delay occasioned the utmost uneasiness. At length

all were assembled, and entered the vehicle which had been provided for them. A gentleman, named De Fersin, disguised as a coachman, undertook to drive them to the barrier. The queen, on her way to the Petit Caroussel, met the carriage of M. de la Fayette, attended by persons who walked beside it with torches; but she escaped observation by hiding herself under the gates of the Louvre. Madame de Tourzel assumed the name of Madame de Korf, who, with her children, was travelling; the king passing for her valet, and the queen as governess of the children. Three lifeguards, also disguised, were, by turns, either to precede the carriage as couriers, or to ride beside it as servants, to the barrier. They reached the Porte St. Martin in safety, where a berline, drawn by six horses, awaited them, which they entered, and at length started; M. de Fersin bidding them adieu, and wishing them success in their enterprise. On returning to Paris, he found that nothing was known of their escape at the municipality at eight o'clock the next morning. The report, however, soon gained ground of the royal party having quitted Paris, with the intention of proceeding to some foreign country; and parties were despatched in all directions, for the purpose of arresting and bringing them back. When the escape became generally known, the shops of the capital were closed, the tocsin was sounded, the drums beat to arms, and a rumour spread that Louis would return with an army of emigrants and foreigners, and wreak a dreadful vengeance upon the people, for the indignities heaped upon him. The aristocrats, however, were in high spirits, and had but one wish, namely, that the fugitives might get clear of the kingdom. Meantime the royal party advanced, but not with the caution requisite for such an enterprise; as the king persisted in putting his head every now and then out of the carriage window. He was recognised at Chalons; but the mayor prevented any

measures being taken for his arrest. He was not, however, so fortunate at St. Menesbould; where Drouet, the son of the postmaster, and a furious revolutionist, having seen the unfortunate monarch, galloped off to Varennes with the news, giving time to the municipality to make preparations for stopping the royal equipage. The arrest was effected by Drouet himself, who met the carriage at the entrance of the town, and presenting a loaded musket at the driver, demanded his passports. The summons was without hesitation obeyed; but Drouet, to gain time, said the papers must be inspected by the regular authorities. Accordingly, the monarch and his party were conducted to the house of Sausse, who also manœuvred to delay them until he found there was a sufficient force of the national guard at hand; when he informed the king that he was discovered and apprehended. For some time Louis denied that he was the king; and high words arising, the queen, much irritated, said in an angry tone, 'Then if you acknowledge him to be the king, why do you not speak to him with the respect which is his due?' Louis, however, finding further deception useless, declared his good intentions towards his country, and said that he merely wished to be where he could convince the world he acted from his free will, which could not be the case in Paris. He then had recourse to entreaty, embracing Sausse, and conjuring him to save the queen and the children, whilst she joined in the same prayer: but all was in vain. Sausse was deeply affected, but retained his firmness. Some officers of hussars came in, and would have saved the party, but they could not count upon their men; and young Romeuf soon after arriving, whom La Fayette had despatched with the decree of the national assembly for the king's arrest, further remonstrance was useless. The queen hereupon burst into a paroxysm of rage, and gave way to the severest invectives against La

Fayette, even declaring her surprise that the people had not put him to death. Romeuf, being a royalist at heart, succeeded in prevailing upon her to command her feelings; and when she had become more calm, the fugitives were replaced in the carriage, and with the utmost speed carried back to Paris.

When we reflect upon the excited state of the French nation at the juncture, we can feel little surprise at the ill consequences of this flight to the royal cause. The threats too of foreign nations, and the welcome given to such of the high families as had taken refuge at their courts, increased the ferment still more: so that the wickedness of the mob at once displayed itself, when the sudden deaths of two of the marked opponents of French freedom, the emperor of Germany and king of Sweden, were announced, in March, 1792. But the government, such as it was, still took the lead, and declared war against the new emperor, Francis I.; the king of Prussia thereon joined the Austrian monarch in a defiance; and the duke of Brunswick, as general of both armies, issued a manifesto, wherein he declared he would sack Paris, if the slightest outrage were offered to the king, queen, or royal family of France.

At midnight of the 5th of August the alarm-bell sounded in every department of that devoted capital: the palace of the Tuileries was attacked, the royal family had only time to escape to the hall of the national assembly, and a fierce battle commenced between a band of Marseillais and the Swiss guard of the monarch. The latter defended themselves with great courage, but were at length overpowered; and a sanguinary massacre ensued. The national guard now joined the Marseillais in the work of destruction; and all the Swiss in the palace were most inhumanly butchered, though arranged on their knees, as their murderers approached them, to implore their mercy. A small party of seventeen, having

taken refuge in the vestry-room of the chapel, and not having yet been engaged, imagined they might depend upon the clemency of the victors, if they surrendered at discretion. But they had no sooner laid down their arms and shouted, 'Vive la nation!' than they shared the fate of their companions. The defenceless pages and servants of the palace were all involved in one promiscuous massacre; and streams of blood were seen running from the roof to the foundation of the building. During the perpetration of these matchless enormities, the national assembly still proceeded, in its own phrase, 'to deliberate.' But its deliberations were no longer free. They were overawed by a clamorous multitude in the galleries, and by troops of ruffians without; who threatened the lives of those who dared to think, speak, or act, for themselves. The stoutest hearts were appalled; a series of decrees were hastily passed, declaring the executive power suspended, and the authority of Louis XVI. revoked; and inviting the people to form a national convention, and meet on the 20th of the ensuing month, September. On the day after the massacre, the king and his family were conducted from the house of the assembly to the palace; and as the carriage passed the Place Vendôme, Gorsas, a violent jacobin, stopped its progress, while the statue of Louis XIV. was pulled down in the monarch's view.

Nothing more occurred of an alarming nature, until information was received of the duke of Brunswick's advance upon Verdun. The whole mob of Paris rose instantly *en masse*, September 2nd; in a short space of time 137 clergy, who had been imprisoned in the convent of the Carmelites, were murdered in cold blood; every man, woman, and child in the prison of the Abbaye was butchered; the abbé Bardy, and the princess Lamballe, were decapitated, and their heads carried on pikes through the streets; while the tenants of the

common prisons were brought to a summary trial by the mere populace, and cut down, as each was declared guilty. On the instant that the National Assembly could obtain a quiet sitting, it decreed the abolition of royalty for ever, and the imprisonment of Louis Capet in the Temple. Almost all the members, when M. d'Herbois exultingly proposed the measure, rose as by one impulse; and waving their hats in the air, they shouted, 'We declare that royalty is abolished for ever!' A new era therefore commenced; and the 20th of September, 1792, was called the first day of the republic.

Meanwhile the French army under Custine was highly successful in Germany; and that under Durnouriez had completely subdued the Austrian Netherlands in November; but no foreign advantages appeared to satisfy the democrats, so long as the king was in existence. His death, therefore, was resolved on; and a day fixed whereon to examine his papers. The mayor of Paris took him from the Temple to the house of the Assembly on that day: and when it was announced to the members that he had arrived, Barrère, the president, ordered him to be brought to the bar. An awful silence prevailed, while every eye was turned towards the door at which the fallen monarch was to enter. At length it was opened, and Louis, calm in demeanour, but pale, was ushered forward by the mayor. Great emotion was betrayed by many in the hall at this moment, many handkerchiefs were held to the eyes, and some seconds elapsed before Barrère, the president, spoke. He then said, 'Louis, you are accused of having committed various crimes to re-establish tyranny on the ruins of liberty; the national convention, therefore, has decreed that you shall be tried; and the members who compose it are to be your judges. You will hear the accusation read; after which you shall answer to the questions which shall be proposed.' To this the king made no reply. The

general act of accusation was then read; and a series of questions being put to him, some he answered in the affirmative, some in the negative, and some evasively; but his general replies were 'No;' or, 'I know nothing of it.' When the whole had been investigated, the president said, 'I have no other question to propose: have you any thing more to add in your defence?' 'I desire to have a copy of the accusation,' said the king, 'and of the papers on which it is founded; and to have a counsel of my own nomination.' Barrère informed him, 'that his first two requests were already decreed, and that the determination respecting the other would be made known to him' in due time. When the king had retired, it was carried, after a tumultuous debate, that counsel should be allowed him: they accordingly spoke firmly in his defence, but all was of no avail, and he was declared guilty. The only question which was then pretended to be agitated, was the nature and degree of the punishment he deserved. On this occasion the duke of Orleans, who had now assumed the name of Mr. Equality (M. Egalité) in the true spirit of jacobinism, voted for *death without restriction*: 'Influenced,' said he, 'by no consideration but that of performing my duty, and convinced that all who have conspired, or shall hereafter conspire, against the sovereignty of the people, deserve death, I vote for death!' One deputy, on seeing this personage anxious for the destruction of a member of his own family, started from his seat, struck his hands together, and exclaimed 'Ah! le scélérat!' Death, therefore, being recorded, it was put to the vote, whether the sentence should be executed in twenty-four hours, or longer delayed? when Robespierre and others were for the earliest period possible, Tallien observing, with diabolical irony, that to keep the unfortunate man in suspense, would be but to prolong his agony. The celebrated Tom Paine, however, who had been cho-

sen a member of the assembly, hereupon rose, and argued strongly against any execution whatever. He concluded a lengthened speech by stating, 'that the king's death, instead of an act of justice, would appear to their allies, the Americans, in particular, an act of vengeance; and that if he were sufficiently master of the French language, he would, in their name, present a petition against the sentence.'

It was not until Saturday, the 19th of January, 1793, that the assembly finally decided on the day of execution, which was then announced to the king to be the following Monday. Meanwhile every indignity had been offered to the monarch, during his captivity in the Temple: he had been separated from the queen and his children; was constantly addressed as Mr. Veto (in derision of his former ability to annul the decrees of the national assembly); and had been compelled to put on the plainest attire. On learning that the hour of his death was fixed, and that he might see his family and friends, Louis sent for his confessor, M. Edgeworth de Fermont; and it is impossible to do justice to the devout and heroic sentiments expressed by the king in this interesting conference;—above all, when he dwelt on the misfortunes of his country. After the conversation, Louis rose, saying, 'I must now go and see my family for the last time. This will be the severest trial of all. When that is over, I shall fix my mind solely on what concerns my salvation.' His interview with the queen and princesses on Sunday was affecting in the extreme, but allowed to be witnessed by all his guards through the glass panes of a door: it was no sooner over, than the monarch went to confession, and then retired to rest. From ten until five he enjoyed very tranquil sleep, and was then awakened, according to his desire, to receive the sacrament. At eight on the morning of January 21, 1793, Santerre came to conduct him to the

place of execution; and, after passing a few minutes in private with his confessor, he came to the outer room, where Santerre was, and said, 'I am ready.'

The king walked through the court with a firm step, and entered the mayor's coach, followed by M. Edgeworth, a municipal officer, and two officers of the national guards. The king repeated the prayers for persons in the agonies of death, during the conveyance from the Temple to the Place de Louis XV.; and when the carriage stopped at the scaffold, said, 'Here we are, then.' He pulled off his coat, unbuttoned the neck of his shirt, and ascended the scaffold with steadiness; and after surveying, for a few moments, the immense multitude, he said with a loud voice, 'Frenchemen, I die innocent, I forgive all my enemies, and I wish that France'—when Santerre, who was on horseback near the scaffold, cried out, 'Sir, you come to die, and not to speak,' and made a signal for the drums to beat, and for the executioners to perform their office. When they attempted to tie his arms, he, for the first time, showed signs of indignation: but when M. Edgeworth reminded him that the Saviour of mankind had allowed himself to be bound, he became passive as a lamb, and was placed under the guillotine. The confessor then kneeling with his face near to that of the king, pronounced aloud, 'Son of St. Louis, ascend to Heaven!' The blow was given, and M. Edgeworth's face was sprinkled with the blood. When the head fell, there was a cry of 'Vive la nation!' and when it was held up and declared to be that of a traitor king, 'Vive la république!' resounded through the crowds, which were immense beyond description. Some dipped their handkerchiefs in the blood; but the greater number, chilled with horror, escaped as fast as they could from the spot. The hair was sold in separate tresses at the foot of the scaffold; and the body was conveyed in a cart to St. Made-

laine's churchyard, and there thrown into the same pit with those who had fallen in the insurrection of August 10th.

As the Reign of Terror had now commenced, and the French rulers had broken the treaty made with England and Holland respecting the opening of the Scheldt, the British nation joined the Dutch in their attempt to prevent the subjugation of their country, by sending over a force under the duke of York, and were seconded by the Austrians; but the defection of the French general Dumouriez did more for the allies than all their united exertions could effect. Meanwhile events were thickening in Paris. Factions, under the titles of Brissotins and Girondists, were opposed to the more destructive parties of the Jacobins and Mountain: the Mountain, amongst which were the regicides Robespierre and Marat, became triumphant, and Brissot and many Girondists were seized and imprisoned. Marat, however, the favourite of the Jacobins, was at the same moment stabbed by Charlotte Corday, a woman of a noble family, who had formed the resolution of travelling alone from Caen to Paris, to rid the world of a sanguinary monster. He was in a warm bath, when, under the excuse of being in extreme distress, she was admitted to his presence. The celebrated general Custine was recalled, and guillotined; hundreds of distinguished republicans were in the same manner immolated; and upon the declaration of the union in the south of France, called *Federate Republicanism*, the streets of Lyons were actually made to flow with the blood of human victims. The danger of famine throughout France had never been so great as at this moment; and fresh tumults began to arise. The jacobinical rulers, however, stifled the cries of the starving populace, by cramming them into the prisons; and when the common receptacles were overloaded, every section and commune was ordered to

fit up some additional strong building to receive the disaffected.

The queen's trial took place 15th of October, 1793; and throughout it, amidst the most aggravated mortification and wanton insult, under accusation for crimes of which she was altogether innocent, or could not commit (one was that of having tried to corrupt the morals of her own son), she submitted with a patience that became her sad condition, and answered with a spirit that marked her elevated mind. She retired from the hall without uttering a word to the court or the people; and at four o'clock in the morning, was reconducted to her dungeon. At five, the drums beat to arms in every part of the city; its whole military force was soon in a state of preparation; cannon were planted in the squares, and at the extremities of the bridges; and at ten, numerous patrols passed through the streets. At half-past eleven the queen was brought out of the prison, and conducted in a common cart to the place of execution. Her hair was entirely cut off from the back of her head, which was covered with a small white cap; she wore a white undress; her hands were tied behind her; and she sat with her back to the horses. The executioner was seated on her right; and on the left was a constitutional priest. The cart was escorted by numerous detachments of horse and foot. An immense mob of people, in which the women appeared to predominate, crowded the streets, insulted the queen, and vociferated, 'Long live the republic!' She seldom cast her eyes upon the crowds, and regarded with indifference, if she at all regarded, the great armed force of 30,000 men, which lined the streets in double ranks. They who had seen her in the former part of her life, could not but observe the altered state of her countenance, and what a sad change sorrow had made in that abode of animation and beauty. Her spirit appeared perfectly calm, and she conversed with

the priest, with an air of submission, but without the least appearance of dejection. She ascended the scaffold with much haste and seeming impatience, and after turning her eyes with emotion towards the gardens of the Tuileries, submitted to the guillotine. At half-past twelve her head was severed from her body; and the executioner exhibited it, all streaming with blood, to an inveterate and insatiable multitude. Thus perished, in the thirty-eighth year of her age, the accomplished Marie Antoinette.

Brisot, and twenty-one other too moderate republicans, were then summarily tried, and guillotined, on the ground of having been opposed to the king's death. The factions in this degraded country were now diminished to two, designated *moderates* and *terrorists*: the latter, headed by Robespierre, were in full power; and the former were those who vainly endeavoured to restrain their fury. As the duke of Orleans, notwithstanding his assumption of an humbler name, was now a suspected personage, he also was brought before his judges, simply identified, and ordered for execution: he suffered by that same engine, to which he had so inhumanly condemned his relative and king. Bailly, the mayor of Paris, was the next victim; and an order was at the same juncture issued by Robespierre to imprison every English person then in France, and confiscate his, her, and their property. This measure was made to include the subjects of all nations having any close alliance with Great Britain; and no less than 50,000 houses of arrest were instantly filled with prisoners, both sexes and all grades being mingled in each room.

The year 1794 was ushered in by the edict to abolish the ancient method of computing time. This innovation was of a more serious nature than superficial observers might imagine; being intended to eradicate every trace of Christianity from the country. After this prelude, the authorities of Paris came in a few days

to the Convention, attended by the newly-made bishops and clergy, who, decorated with caps of liberty, renounced the sacerdotal office. They declared that the necessity of complying with the prejudices of the people, in order to teach them the moral virtues and social duties, had alone caused their acceptance of their religious functions; that now, abjuring the trade of superstition, they were resolved, instead of Christians, to become men; to own no temple but the sanctuary of the law; no divinity but liberty; no object of worship but their country; no gospel but the constitution. These and various other declarations were despatched to all the departments and municipalities, to perfect the work of the revolution; and the day of this event was mentioned in the calendar, as *the day of reason*. The *sans-culottes*, who, in consequence of these proceedings, considered themselves authorized to plunder the places of worship, divided with the Convention large heaps of shrines, figures, and vessels, hitherto used in the offices of religion; and at Abbeville and other places, where the churches were still kept open, the priests were arrested and thrown into dungeons. Nor can the bishop of Moulins be passed by without receiving the execration he merits. This furious and atheistical fanatic, trampling on the cross and the mitre, assumed the pike and the cap of liberty, and from his pulpit preached the doctrine, big with horror, 'that death is an eternal sleep.'

Fabre d'Eglantine, the new calendarist, did not live to see six months of his new era run out; but was guillotined with Danton and others. On the plea that the farmers-general of the public revenue had become rich with the spoils of the people, Robespierre put thirty-four of them to death; and 20,000,000*l.* sterling are said to have been gained by this diabolical proceeding. Meanwhile, the revolutionary troops, now a mere band of legalized robbers, entered each citizen's house, and, wherever

they found money, carried it off: if murmurs arose, a guillotine appeared in the rear of the division of the army. The officers in those expeditions, in writing from the country to their friends in Paris, would say, 'We have well sans-culottized such and such a town; we have enlightened it to the amount of 200,000 livres, in *monnoy savant*, and cured sixty of the most diseased inhabitants of aching heads.' Meanwhile the activity of the guillotine was daily increasing; inasmuch that, from ten to fifteen per day, the amount of executions had augmented to fifty and sixty, by the month of May.

On the 12th of that month, the princess Elizabeth, sister of the murdered king, was brought to trial. This noble-minded woman, disdaining any concession which might soften the cruelty of her judges, magnanimously replied to the first interrogatory of the court, 'What is your name?' 'My name is Elisabeth of France, and I am sister of the monarch you murdered, and aunt of the present king.' When charged with having encouraged her nephew in the hope of succeeding to his father's throne, she replied, 'I have conversed familiarly with that unfortunate child, who was dear to me on more than one account; and I gave him all those consolations which appeared to me likely to reconcile him to the loss of those who had given him birth.' Without further interrogatory, she was condemned and led to the scaffold.

Decadi was the only day, for months, in which the operation of the fatal axe was suspended; and, as the newspapers of that evening did not contain the accustomed list of victims, they were deemed proportionably dull by the Parisians. People looked over the names of the victims, as one would the arrivals at Bath or Brighton; and unless the readers were sufficiently conspicuous to be in danger, they perused them with little emotion. The day of doom to Robespierre, the atrocious

author of these sanguinary scenes, was now at hand: he had no sooner got rid of Danton and five others, for expressing their fears that he would become a second Cromwell, than a conspiracy was formed amongst the remaining members of the Convention, to cut him off. Tallien, his brother regicide, was amongst the first to denounce him from the tribune; and the whole assembly then cried, as with one voice, 'Down with the tyrant! Down with the Cromwell!'

Robespierre, his brother, Couthon, St. Just, and Le Bas, were instantly put under arrest, and conveyed to separate prisons; but Robespierre being set free by the keeper of the Luxembourg, in the night, was conducted to the hall of the commune, where Henriot, commander of the national guard, Fleuriot, mayor of Paris, and others of his creatures, had assembled forces for his defence. This was the critical moment; but neither Henriot nor Robespierre himself, had sufficient spirit to head the mob, and lead it against the Convention. While they deliberated, their opponents proceeded to action. A proclamation to the Parisians was made known by torch-light and beat of drum, in every quarter of the city. The rebels sent one out at the same time. It was proscription against proscription. The officers with the respective proclamations passed each other in the streets. Many of the guards of these parties were cut to pieces, or dreadfully wounded by the sabres of each other. On the Place de Grève, both proclamations were read at one time; that of Robespierre asserting that a majority of the Convention had turned traitors, and would soon make every patriot answer for the smallest indiscretion; while that of the Convention called on every good citizen to sustain the national representation, menaced as it was by rebels and faithless magistrates. The latter document won the people; and the military, 10,000 in force, and who had been called

together to support Robespierre, proceeding to the Maison de Ville, where the impeached members were haranguing, summoned all within to surrender. The outlawed deputies, struck with despair at this unexpected turn of affairs, began to lay violent hands on themselves; so that, when the gendarmes entered the building, they found Robespierre with one side of his face blown away by a pistol-shot, and Couthon severely wounded by a carving-knife, which he still held in his hand. Three others had leaped out of a two-pair-of-stairs window, and were miserably bruised; but all being taken, to the number of eleven, they were hurried off on sledges to the place of execution, attended by an astonishing concourse of people. The crowd forced Robespierre to hold up his head, all bleeding as it was, as he passed by the church of St. Madelaine; and when the guillotine severed it from his body, the applauses of the people are said to have lasted fifteen minutes.

The Convention next chastised the guilty members of the municipality who had aided the rebels; and no less than 128 magistrates of Paris were put to death. Above 4000 persons, who had specific charges against them, were released from prison; but Lebon, the commissioner of Arras, who had guillotined 300 of the inhabitants without proof of their criminality, was executed, as also was Carrier, the sanguinary commissioner of Nantes. The year 1794 closed with these proceedings, and the attempts of the Convention to crush the jacobin party; and the year 1795 opened with the victories of the republican army under Pichegru, in Holland. The stadtholder fled to England; and Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph on the 20th of January. But the comparative tranquillity produced by the last step of the Convention, was on the point of being disturbed in the most terrific manner in May, on account of the low rate of pay obtained by labourers and artisans. The Convention was sitting on the

19th of that month, when 100,000 citizens took up arms, and a band of women rushed into the hall, with loud cries of 'Bread! and the convention of 1793!' The military were called in, when the mob in their fury had killed one of the members on the spot; the soldiers fired, and the former scenes of bleeding heads carried on poles were exhibited in every street of the capital. Some of the deputies themselves being afterwards accused of having organized this insurrection, they, in the true spirit of the new French principles, retired into an apartment of the house of assembly, and stabbed themselves. The son of the late king, known in history as Louis XVII., having died in June, the French rulers displayed a degree of returning sympathy, by exchanging the young sister of that prince (the present legal queen of France), for several deputies and ambassadors, who had been delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumouriez. Treaties having been entered into with Prussia and Spain, the new French constitution was sworn to in September. By this the executive power was henceforth lodged in five Directors, and the legislative in two Councils, that of ancients, like peers, and that of 500, like commons.

The year 1796 commenced with the entrance of Napoleon Buonaparte, an obscure attaché of the republican army, upon his extraordinary career. He first came into notice at the battle of Monte Notte, and by that victory forced the king of Sardinia to cede Savoy to France. The last royalist insurrection in the south of France was, just at the same juncture, crushed. Towards the close of 1795, an expedition had been sent from England to aid the party called Chouans, who were in arms against the republic; and the force employed consisted chiefly of French emigrants, under the command of the count de Sombreuil. They landed in Quiberon bay, and took the fort of the same name; but they soon after experienced a melancholy reverse, the

fort being surprised by the republicans under general Hoche, who killed or made prisoners 10,000 emigrants, Chouans, and English, found therein. The count de Sombreuil, the bishop of Dol, with the clergy who accompanied him, and other prisoners, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death; and before April, 1796, the Chouans, with their chiefs, Charette and Stoffet, were exterminated. In March, violent disputes arose between that party in the two councils which supported the Directory, or ministry, and that which, for opposing the Directory, obtained the title of *anti-directorial*; and the latter getting the better, its members not only accused the Directory of extravagance, and bad foreign policy, but, secretly instigated by two of the directors themselves, Carnot and Barthélemi, plotted an insurrection. The other three in the Directory, aided by the army, commanded the alarm-guns to be fired on a sudden, and the halls of the councils to be surrounded by a military force. General Augereau, who was charged with the execution of these orders, repaired to the barracks; and being readily supported by the soldiers, he entered the hall of the 500, and seized Pichegru, the president. Carnot took advantage of the tumult, and fled; but Barthélemi calmly awaited the storm, and with Pichegru, and a number of deputies, was transported to Cayenne.

The power of the Directory, or rather of the party of Barras therein, being rendered complete by this victory over the councils, it projected new schemes of conquest to employ the armies. A French general having been killed during a tumult in Rome, 1797, the French soldiers deposed the pope, and erected what they called the Roman republic 1798; and Switzerland being in like manner transformed into a polyarchy, called the Helvetic Confederacy, the government of both was vested in the French officers and their partisans.

In the beginning of 1798 peace

was concluded between Austria and France, and Buonaparte returned to Paris. Not being able to disband its vastly numerous troops, the Directory permitted an invasion of England to be now talked of, merely, it would seem, to employ the public mind; since, after an immense show of preparation, a large fleet sailed with troops, under Buonaparte's command, for Malta, and thence crossed to Egypt, the object being to penetrate overland to the Anglo-Indian territory. The proceedings of the French in Egypt are traced in the memoir of Napoleon, who, at the secret call of the abbé Sieyès, returned to Paris in August, 1799, and speedily put an end to the revolutionary government.

LOUIS XVII., dauphin and duc de Normandie, is usually placed in the list of French kings by historians; in the same manner that we enumerate king Edward V. amongst English monarchs. On the judicial murder of his parent, 1793, the unfortunate prince, then eight years of age, was placed as a state-prisoner, with one Simon, a shoemaker, a man of drunken and other reprobate habits, who treated him with studied indignity, leaving him for a whole year without cleansing his room, or allowing him to change his apparel. Covered with vermin and dirt, and denied every mode of exercise, he soon lost the use of his limbs; and, when fallen into that debilitated condition, he was roused from the dozings into which he habitually fell, by day and by night, at stated intervals, to answer to the insulting call of his unfeeling guards, 'Capet, are you there?' When scarcely ten years old, death (according to the statement of the French Convention, as at page 25 of this volume) put a period to his sufferings, June 9, 1795.

We have now to return to Napoleon Buonaparte, whose origin and apparently accidental rise to military authority, are sketched in his before-named memoir.—(See *Napoleon Buonaparte*.) It was in the month of August, 1799, as above stated, that,

suspecting the existence of a plot in the Directory to prevent the carrying out of any such plan of personal aggrandizement as he had meditated in his own behalf, he secretly quitted his supreme command in Egypt, and returned to Paris. The directorial members were too awe-struck at their general's unexpected arrival, to ask him why he had deserted his post; and this display of weakness of the executive authorities gave an ascendant power to the star of Buonaparte, which nothing henceforth was seen materially to cross or check, until it had taken its firm position in the zenith.

Lucien Buonaparte, the next brother of the general, had just been elected president of the council of Five Hundred; the military openly rejoiced at his success; two at least in the Directory were his stanch friends; and there was no individual or party in the state, possessed of influence sufficient to oppose, with effect, any project he might devise for his own aggrandizement. Accordingly, upon the application of many regiments to be reviewed by him, he fixed November the 10th, 1799, for a large assembly of officers at his house in the Rue de la Victoire, at six in the morning. Moreau, Macdonald, Bernadotte, were amongst those who thus allowed their regiments to be reviewed in the Champs Elysées. At the same time the council of ancients assembled in the Tuileries, and decreed that the chief command of the armies should be given to general Buonaparte; upon which the general entered, and in person declared the Directory dissolved. Buonaparte now took up his residence in the Tuileries; and on the 19th the members of both legislative assemblies were summoned thither, and placed in different apartments. Having brought the council of ancients over, the general suddenly entered the room of the five hundred, accompanied by four grenadiers. A fierce outcry arose of, 'Drawn swords in the sanctuary of the laws? Let him be proclaimed

a traitor!' and many members rushed on the intruder, one even aiming a dagger at his throat, from which danger the grenadiers forcibly saved him, carrying him out breathless. Calm in the field of battle, Buonaparte had no idea of the horrors of civil commotion, which he was thus provoking; and he came out staggering and stammering from the five hundred, exclaiming to the soldiery, 'I offered them victory and fame, and they have answered me with daggers!' In an instant after, the president Lucien came out, much in the same manner. He had refused to pronounce his brother an outlaw; and, now leaping upon a horse in the court, thus addressed the astonished soldiery, amongst whom were standing his brother, Angereau, Talleyrand, and Sieyes: 'Factionous men with daggers interrupt the deliberations of the senate—I authorize you to employ force.' Upon this appeal, Le Clerc, by Napoleon's order, rushed with a party of grenadiers into the room of the five hundred; and after the council had been driven out, some of the members escaping by the windows, Napoleon, Sieyes, and Ducos, were declared provisional consuls of the state. Thus terminated, without bloodshed, the revolution of the 19th of Brumaire; and on the 14th of December it was agreed that Buonaparte should be consul-in-chief, and all power be virtually lodged in his person.

It was in 1800 that Napoleon resolved on the adventurous plan of crossing the Alps, to attack the Austrians on their own ground in Italy. With 60,000 men he passed the great St. Bernard; his main body, of which he himself took care, having the gigantic task of surmounting, with the artillery, the huge barriers of the Alpine chain. At St. Pierre all traces of a road disappeared. We have to think of an army, horse and foot, laden with all the munitions of a campaign, having to be urged up and along ridges of rock covered by eternal snow, where the goat-herd, the

chamois-hunter, and the smuggler, are alone accustomed to venture, and to find a track amidst precipices, where to slip a foot is death. The guns were dismounted, and grooved into the trunks of trees; and not less than 100 soldiers were sometimes occupied in dragging up a single cannon. The consul travelled mostly on foot, cheering on those who had the care of the great guns; but the fatigue undergone by one and all is not to be described. The descent from the heights they had gained was not less difficult than the ascent: the horses, mules, and guns were to be let down one slippery steep after another, while the officers, and even Buonaparte himself, were content to slide down *scated*, from time to time, for nearly 100 yards together. The Austrian troops at Chatillon received the onset of the invaders with about as much surprise as if they had dropped from the clouds; and at Marengo the French soon after gained a decisive victory over the Austrian general Melas, who brought 40,000 men into the field. As by this one battle the consul had regained nearly all that the French had lost in 1799, he hurried back to Paris, after granting an armistice to Melas.

It was now that many fruitless attempts were made by the adherents of the exiled Bourbons to assassinate the ambitious general: amongst others, by the ignition of a barrel of gunpowder, at a point where his coach was about to pass to the theatre. But intelligence soon arrived at Paris of Abercrombie's complete defeat of the French army in Egypt, March 1801; and all Napoleon's rage being thereupon directed towards Great Britain, 100,000 men were in a few weeks assembled on the coast of France, preparatory to a descent upon England. That hazardous attempt, however, was never made; and even a treaty of peace was signed, 1802, between the two nations, at Amiens. Buonaparte now occupied himself in consolidating his power. He restored the French church, though he de-

clared himself an unbeliever; allowed the pope to appoint clergy to the vacant benefices; and drew up the 'Code Napoleon,' the first uniform system of laws which the French monarchy ever possessed, and which at this day forms the rule of a great portion of Europe. He also instituted the Legion of Honour, with large national domains for its maintenance, and a cross, which entitled the wearer to certain precedence and a pension. His party next proposed, and carried the point, that Napoleon should be consul for life. As respected foreign nations, the ambitious consul seemed to consider all Europe so completely humbled before him, that it was no longer necessary to conceal his views, or retard their execution. Before the treaty of Amiens had been signed, he caused himself to be declared president of the Italian republic; and he then ominously took possession of the isle of Elba, reserved Piedmont, kept Holland in his grasp, entered Switzerland, and annihilated its liberty, and authoritatively disposed of the affairs of Germany, as if he had been sovereign of the empire. He also insisted that England should resign Malta to its knights. These, and a variety of other outrages, equally offensive and unjustifiable, at last roused the spirit of the British nation; and hostilities recommenced between the two countries, May, 1803.

When the British, as supreme on the ocean, had seized several French vessels before any formal declaration of war, all the English who happened at the moment to be in France, were put under arrest. Mortier overran Hanover, and the invasion of England was again planned. But the spirited conduct of the British on this occasion, raising in an instant a regular army of 100,000 men, a militia of 80,000, and volunteer corps to the amount of 350,000, and sending Nelson with his immense fleet to watch and sweep the channel between the countries, put an end to the consul's hopes; and his at-

tention was again occupied in detecting conspiracies against his own life. Pichegru, a general who was known to favour the cause of the Bourbons, and captain Wright, an Englishman, were soon after found dead in their prisons: while the innocent and noble duc d'Enghien was kidnapped in a neutral territory (Baden), brought to Vincennes, and shot in the night after a mock trial; a transaction which must for ever stain with the deepest dye the name of Buonaparte. On the 18th of May, 1804, the consul assumed the Imperial Dignity; and in the cathedral of Notre Dame, taking the crowns from the hands of the pope, he placed them himself upon his own and his consort's (Josephine's) head. In May, 1805, he repaired to Milan, and there received the iron crown of the Lombard monarchs, styling himself King of Italy. Sweden, Russia, and Austria now united with England to free from French rule Holland, Switzerland, Sardinia, Italy, and the North German states. Napoleon, according to his practice when war was declared against him, rushed to the scene where he was most likely to surprise his enemies; and he had the good fortune to shut up the Austrian general, Mack, with 20,000 troops, in the garrison of Ulm, which surrendered without a blow. Massena was operating in Italy with success against the archduke Charles of Austria and 60,000 men; while marshal Ney completely defeated the archduke John in the Tyrol. Murat and Augereau were with large forces in Bohemia and Swabia; and Buonaparte, triumphant, and without a battle, entered Vienna, November 1805. He was here acquainted that Nelson had totally destroyed the combined Spanish and French fleets at Trafalgar, and that Spain had joined his enemies.

Intelligence so disastrous, however, served as a new stimulus to Napoleon's energies. He quitted Vienna, and advanced on the plain between Brunn and the village of Austerlitz,

determined to bring the united Russians and Austrians to a contest. Lannes, Soult, Bernadotte, Murat, Jüdenot, and Davoust, were in command under him; and on the other side were the emperors of Russia and Austria, with the archdukes Charles and John. The sun rose with uncommon brilliancy on the 2nd of December; and, from the issue of that day's conflict, the 'sun of Austerlitz' has long since passed into a proverb amongst the French. From the heights, the allied emperors were doomed to witness, on this fatal day, the total ruin of their armies. It was with the greatest difficulty they rallied some fragments of their forces around them, and effected their retreat; 20,000 prisoners, forty pieces of artillery, and all the Russian standards, remained with the conqueror. Such was what the French delighted to call 'the battle of the Emperors.' A treaty soon followed his decisive victory. Russia returned home, and Austria yielded Venice to the French kingdom of Italy, and the Tyrol to Bavaria. Joseph Buonaparte was now made king of Naples; Murat grand duke of Berg; Napoleon's sister, Elise, princess of Lucca; Pauline, princess of Gustalla; and Louis Buonaparte, king of Holland. A new order of nobility was created: Talleyrand, Bernadotte, and others, were made princes; the most distinguished marshals received the title of duke; and a long array of counts filled the lower steps of the throne; all with extensive grants of land in the conquered countries.

In 1806, a bookseller, named Palm, a subject of the king of Prussia, was seized by Buonaparte's emissaries for a libel upon him, and shot. All Germany was in an uproar on hearing of so unjust an act; and the king of Prussia, who had long wished to shake off the French yoke, now joined the allies. Napoleon instantly marched to Nuremberg, the residence of Palm, and principal store-place of the Prussians, blew up the magazines

there, and completely defeated the Prussian forces at Jena, under the old duke of Brunswick, who was early carried off the field wounded in the face, and was refused by the heartless victor a deathbed in his native city. Napoleon entered Berlin, and, as had been his practice in every conquered city, sent off the best statues and pictures of the royal galleries to Paris, depriving even the mausoleum of Frederick the Great of the hero's sword and orders. He next advanced against the Russians; and having beaten their forces at Friedland, the emperor Alexander sued for peace, which was granted, and ratified by the emperors upon a raft on the river Niemen, near Tilsit, 1807—a meeting which ended in a singular friendship, inasmuch as it was agreed that Napoleon should espouse Alexander's sister, and that the two should divide Europe between them! England now saw France, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, league to destroy her commerce, by what Napoleon termed the 'continental system;' whereby no British manufactures were to be received into either of those states. Earl Cathcart was instantly despatched with a fleet, to compel the Danes to surrender their shipping, lest it should fall into the hands of Napoleon; and after bombarding Copenhagen, he was allowed to carry away the whole, to the inexpressible disappointment of the French emperor.

Under the plea of compelling Spain to adopt the continental system, Napoleon sent a large force into that country and Portugal. John, king of Portugal, departed as speedily as possible, with all his family, to his colony of Brazil; and Charles IV. of Spain was forced by the French to abdicate his crown in favour of Joseph Buonaparte. Murat was raised to the thus vacated throne of Naples. This was in 1808. Before the middle of the year, however, the Spaniards rose in small parties upon their invaders, so that no French soldier dared to go out alone; and the streets of most towns

were red each morning with the assassinations of the previous night. Still the main body of the Spaniards were in alliance with their oppressors; and when sir Arthur Wellesley landed in the bay of Mondego, he found Junot ready to oppose him with an immense force. Sir Arthur drove the marshal back upon Lisbon; but when, in consequence of the convention of Cintra, sir Hew Dalrymple was called before a court-martial in England, and sir Arthur subpoenaed as a witness, the command devolved on sir John Moore. Napoleon, who had left Paris for Erfurt, to be assured, in an interview with the emperor of Russia, that no assault was to be apprehended on his side, hurried towards Spain; and having entered both Saragossa and Madrid, advanced to meet sir John. But Soult was already in array against the English, who retreated towards Corunna, on hearing of the superior numbers of the enemy. At Corunna, Moore engaged Soult, but fell, mortally wounded, January, 1809. His troops nevertheless embarked for England in safety; and the French, in admiration of his heroism, erected a monument over his remains. Napoleon hurried off to Paris, on finding war declared against him by Austria; and in an incredibly short period he gained a victory over the archduke Charles at Eckmühl, and re-entered Vienna. So far successful, he returned to the Tyrol, where the brave mountaineers had risen under Hofer, to shake off the Bavarian yoke; and this rebellion being suppressed, he defeated the archduke again at Wagram, taking 20,000 prisoners, and all his artillery. Meanwhile, in the peninsula, sir Arthur Wellesley had returned to take his command, and defeated Victor at Talavera, for which he was created lord Wellington. The Austrians being again compelled to sue for an armistice, the duke of Brunswick-Oels escaped by a most masterly retreat to England; and Schill, who had heroically tried to rouse the Prussians against the French,

had perished at Stralsund. As the pope (Pius VII.) would not agree to oppose the English, Napoleon declared the papal power at an end, and conveyed his holiness a prisoner to Fontainebleau.

In April, 1810, the emperor divorced his queen Josephine, to marry Maria Louisa, daughter of the emperor of Austria, who in the next year gave birth to a son, styled king of Rome. He then removed his brother Louis from the throne of Holland, and added that country to France. Lord Wellington in 1812 made great progress in the work of driving the French out of Spain, defeating them at Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajoz, and Salamanca; and in May of that year, Napoleon was obliged wholly to turn his attention from the peninsula. Hurrying to Dresden, accompanied by the empress, he summoned the emperor of Austria, the kings of Prussia, Naples, Wurttemberg, and Westphalia, to meet him, and declared war against Russia. He instantly commenced a march upon Moscow; but found the enemy every where retreating before him, after burning each city and town through which he had to pass. At Smolensko and Borodino, the Russian general attacked him, occasioned him great loss, and then retreated. At length, September 14, he reached, with his immense forces, a hill overlooking Moscow, when he speedily noticed that no smoke issued from the chimneys of the houses; and on entering the place, it was found deserted by all but the very poorest and most wretched of its vast population. In the pillage which succeeded, there were few soldiers who did not clothe themselves in the silks and rich furs of the evacuated warehouses; but what was Napoleon's perplexity, on being roused from his bed during the night after his arrival, to witness the conflagration of the city. Moscow was at every point in flames; and it was now clear that Rostopchin, the governor, had, before quitting, undermined the place. 'These are indeed

Scythians!' exclaimed Napoleon, as he removed his head-quarters to Petrowsky, a league distant: 'this bodes great misfortune!' Although he kept up the appearance of cheerfulness in presence of the army, and even licensed 'Le Théâtre Français à Moscow,' he secretly brooded over his inevitable downfall. He hastily tried negotiations with the Russian generals in the neighbourhood: but finding all in vain, he conceived the plan of securing a retreat to Poland, where he hoped to remain unmolested until the spring. But to execute this, required all his art and vigilance. His first object was to deceive the Russians by sending all his baggage and plunder on the Smolensko road, together with his sick and wounded, whilst he himself, with his serviceable troops, should push on to Minsk, where extensive depôts had for some time been formed, and where he expected to be reinforced by Victor, and what remained of St. Cyr's division. He at the same time attempted to deceive Kutusov with regard to his intentions, as if he meant to force his way through the Russian army, to get possession of Kalouga, and there to winter, in the most fertile province of the Russian empire. For this purpose he detached Murat upon that route, with orders to keep up a protracted warfare; but evidently intending to sacrifice that division of the army, whilst the other should secure its retreat. For all this, however, Kutusov was prepared, and therefore ordered general Benningson to set off with a sufficient force to engage Murat; a measure which was followed by the total defeat of that general at Malo Yarraslovitz. The intelligence of this event was like a thunderclap to Napoleon, who saw that not a moment was now to be lost in ulterior proceedings, his attempt to deceive having recoiled upon himself. In fact, that division, which he intended to cover his retreat, could no longer be serviceable to him; the whole Russian army was now in motion, and he had no

route left but over that waste of desolation which his own troops, and the Russians, had prepared for his retrograde movement.

Napoleon began his retreat Oct. 23, with his own division of the army: and as Smolensko was the nearest spot to which he could direct his route with any hopes of escape, his troops were ordered to advance in that direction. But to drag on their weak and exhausted frames was almost impossible; as even in this early stage of their movements, they were actually feeding upon the cavalry horses, which were dying daily by hundreds, already feeling the influence of the hyperborean winter which was setting in. Napoleon seems at this period to have made preparations for his own personal escape from dangers which now he not only foresaw, but whose pressure he actually felt; for, like his meanest soldier, he was obliged to bivouac upon the snow, with no other covering than the tempestuous and wintry heavens. Indeed his situation must have been dreadful, if he had any feelings of conscience to add to those of his body; when, during those horrible nights of the extremest cold, his famished followers attempted to light fires, and huddled round the half-kindled billets, but died by hundreds in the few short hours of rest, leaving on many spots nothing but ghastly circles of corpses at the morning dawn. He was indeed now compelled to share in those miseries; for, on one occasion in particular, his shivering troops actually obliged him to pull off the warm mantle in which he was wrapped, on horseback—a situation, too, which he was forced to assume, from their unwillingness that he should ride in a close carriage, defended from those inclemencies under which his troops were sinking even close to his side. To follow the dismayed and ambitious chieftain, and the various divisions of his army, step by step, throughout the whole of their manifold sufferings, would fill a volume; we

must, therefore, proceed shortly to state, that early in November, Beauharnois, with his division, was driven upon Smolensko, after several severe actions, particularly on the 7th and 8th of the month, at the passing of the Vop, where he was obliged to leave the greater part of his artillery behind. Indeed great blame is justly imputed to Napoleon for bringing from Moscow so vast a mass of heavy *matériel*, the delay occasioned by the transportation of which was one great cause of the final destruction of his army, either by their pursuers or the weather. Through various sufferings, and harassed by Cossacks who killed every straggler, Napoleon, at the head of 6000 chosen horse, pushed on, leaving his daily diminishing main force to follow as it could, and arrived on the 9th of November at Smolensko, where he fixed his head-quarters; but in such haste had he prosecuted his journey, that he was totally ignorant, not only of the fate of several divisions of his army, but even of the movements and positions of the pursuing Russians. On his arrival at Smolensko, he could not muster more than 60,000, out of 100,000 of which his troops consisted on leaving Moscow; and even of these a great portion were still in danger, particularly Ney's division, of 15,000, who formed his rear-guard, about a day's march from head-quarters. From Smolensko he soon found it necessary to retire, giving directions to Davoust to remain with his division, and to destroy the place previously to leaving it, which was to be done as soon as the other divisions had set off for Krasnoy; towards which place himself marched, on the 13th November, at the head of his imperial guard, which was the only part of his troops that seemed either to possess any sort of fidelity towards his person, or to preserve its subordination. The villages in the vicinity of Krasnoy were, at this moment, occupied by general Miloradovitch; whilst the grand Russian army, under Kutusov,

was now pushing on with the greatest celerity, in hopes of overtaking the emperor even before he could leave Smolensko ; movements which it was executing with comparative facility, being well clothed, and, moreover, accustomed to the climate, and to the rigours of the season. Indeed, so rapid was its advance, that Napoleon had scarcely arrived at Krasnoy, before he understood it was close at hand. It was necessary, however, that he should wait for Davoust, and therefore he made as good a disposition of his force as the ground, and the state of his troops, would permit ; at the same time taking particular care to provide for his retreat, in case of necessity, by securing some important positions on the road to Orcha. On the 17th Davoust's corps was well advanced to join Napoleon ; but the latter's situation was extremely critical, as Miloradovitch had posted his troops so as to permit him to pass the Russian line, and then to attack him on his flanks and rear, which was put in execution with great judgment, about a mile and a half from Krasnoy. The corps of Davoust was soon thrown into confusion ; and Miloradovitch instantly rushing forward, at the point of the bayonet and sabre, the whole division fled towards the headquarters of Napoleon, who was then in the midst of his guards. No sooner did the emperor discern the fate of the day—indeed he did not even wait for that—than he set off at a full gallop with his whole suite ; thus abandoning a part of his army to which he had hitherto affixed so much consequence, and leaving to the fury of an incensed enemy a field-marshal whom he had always affected to regard with peculiar esteem. The complete destruction of Davoust's corps succeeded to the acclaim of victory from the Russian lines. The cries of his deserted and dying soldiers must have followed the flying steps of Napoleon ; but he was deaf to the appeal, and was seen no more. The wretched few who escaped the

swords of their conquerors, sought shelter in the woods which skirt the Dnieper, and there, wounded, starving, and naked, laid them down under the frozen thickets, and soon forgot the unfeeling conduct of their leader and their own miseries in the sleep of death.

At length Napoleon arrived at the banks of the Beresina, having his army in two separate bodies. Here he found the bridges all broken down ; and while he was endeavouring to construct a temporary one, the Russian army was advancing in great force. Wittgenstein, who commanded, now ordered the Cossack hertman Platov to push forward towards Bernsoff, whilst himself, on the 26th, advanced towards Vesselovo and Stondentze, where Napoleon was erecting bridges, at one of which places he hoped to catch him. The latter village was first attacked and carried, and the whole of the French troops in that quarter taken prisoners ; but it being soon ascertained that Napoleon was not there, Platov was sent across the river to join Tchitchagov, whilst Wittgenstein proceeded to Vesselovo. The emperor, however, soon appreciated the danger of his situation ; and the moment that his bridge in this quarter was passable, he ordered over a sufficient number of his guards, to insure his safety. Having then crossed with his principal officers, he was followed by a promiscuous crowd of the soldiery, who rushed upon the bridge in such numbers, that the way became completely choked. The Russians came upon this impeded mass almost by surprise ; when thousands plunged into the river, and the whole scene became one of the most tumultuous horror. Napoleon, the better to aid his own escape, and regardless of the situation of his troops, now ordered the bridge to be fired ; by which means such of the men as were not drowned fell into the hands of the Russians, who also got possession of the greater part of the French baggage and artillery.

For half a square mile leading to the bridge, the carriages of all descriptions were so closely locked, that neither man nor horse could find his way between them; 5000 men were killed in the course of the day, the same number were drowned, and upwards of 13,000 were taken prisoners.

The emperor still continued his flight; and as he hurried onwards, he was assailed with reports of the overthrow of one general, the surrender of another, and the hemming in of a third. He heard that Victor, in crossing the Beresina, over a bridge intended solely for waggons and cannon, had lost, from overloading it, many thousand men in an instant, with the best of his artillery. 'The scream that rose at the moment of the fall of the bridge,' writes an eyewitness, 'did not leave my ears for weeks: it was heard clear and loud over the hurrahs of the pursuing Cossacks, and above all the roar of the Russian artillery;' and when the Beresina thawed after that winter's frost, 36,000 bodies were found in its bed!

The cold was still intense, both to the flying Napoleon and his far-behind main army; and amid the latter, discipline could with difficulty be kept up. The artillery was everywhere abandoned; the horses sank and stiffened by hundreds and by thousands; while the starving soldiery slew others of these animals, that they might drink their warm blood, and wrap themselves in their yet reeking skins. The assaults of the Cossacks continued as before. The troops often performed their march by torch-light, with the hope of escaping their merciless pursuers; when they halted, they fell asleep in hundreds to wake no more—their enemies found them frozen to death around the ashes of their watch-fires; and, on one occasion, a party of poor famished wretches were found engaged in broiling the flesh of their dead comrades! Flocks of wolves followed in the track of the dying army, and even entered France in

pursuit of the small portion which eventually escaped destruction. When all these horrors were from time to time told to Napoleon, he would peevishly exclaim, 'Why will you disturb my tranquillity? I desire to know no particulars. Why will you deprive me of my tranquillity?' On December 4, he arrived at Smorgonic; when, judging the period to be favourable to his own personal escape, he appointed Murat his lieutenant-general, and then adopting the disguise of a servant, and accompanied by Caulincourt, he entered a sledge, in which he was drawn across the snows to Wilna, where he arrived on the 7th. He staid not a moment at this place, but pushed on with great rapidity to Warsaw, where he arrived on the 10th of December. From Warsaw he speedily set off for Dresden; and then, travelling rapidly by way of Leipzig and Mentz, arrived at Paris on the 18th of December, which city he entered at midnight. When the army he had thus disgracefully deserted reached France, it was found reduced from 500,000 to less than 50,000! Such is the price at which ambition does not hesitate to purchase even the chance of what the world calls *glory*!

So vast however was the influence of this singular man over the French people, that he was still able to raise by a new conscription 350,000 effective soldiers! Finding Prussia had joined the Russians, and that all were marching towards France, he was soon at the head of his new army in Saxony, and gained, with little advantage, the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen. Though a congress was held at Prague, to bring about a general reconciliation, it terminated without any such result; and, Austria now joining the enemies of Napoleon, the battles of Dresden, Culm, and last of all Leipzig, displayed to his view that his only security lay in retreat. He offered to cede all his conquests, and to keep only France within the Rhine, but in vain; the allied monarchs would not listen to

him; and when the Germans had forced him over their favourite river, the natural boundary of their country, an universal thanksgiving to the God of battles was offered up, amidst cries of 'The Rhine! the Rhine!'

Napoleon was now to see all his former allies, and all on whom he had imperiously trampled, in vengeful array against him. Holland recalled its stadtholder; Hanover returned to its English possessor; Brunswick, and the other German states, followed the same example; the Tyrolese were in arms; even Murat, his own creature, offered to join Austria to overwhelm him; the Adriatic was free; and in Spain, lord Wellington was driving out the remnant of the French army, and threatening to advance upon Paris. Disaffection too was discovered in France itself; Bordeaux and other important cities were known to incline to the restoration of the exiled Bourbons: add to this, the allied Russians, Prussians, and Austrians, were about to cross the Rhine, and approach the capital: in a word, as Napoleon afterwards declared at St. Helena, 'he felt the reins slipping from his hands!' But he by no means yielded to despair. He headed his troops, fought at Brienne, La Rothiere, Soissons, and Laon: and, sure of success, refused to negotiate with his enemies until it was too late. He was at Troyes when he received the news of the entrance of the allies into Paris; and hurrying on horseback to Fontainebleau, which he reached late at night, he there ordered a carriage, and, with Caulaincourt and Berthier, drove towards Paris. Nothing could shake his belief that he was yet in time; until, while changing horses a few miles from the capital, general Belliard came up, at the head of a column of cavalry, and stated the fact. Leaping from the coach, he began, 'Why are you here, Belliard? where are the enemy? where my wife and boy? where is Marmont? where Mortier?' Belliard, walking

by his side, told him the events of the day. He strode on towards Paris, crying 'You should have held out longer, you should have raised Paris, go, go; I see every one has lost his senses! This comes of employing fools and cowards.' With such exclamations Napoleon hurried on, dragging Belliard with him, until they were met by the first of the retreating infantry. 'In proceeding to Paris,' said their leader, 'you rush on death or captivity.' At these words Buonaparte sank at once into perfect composure, gave orders that the troops, as they arrived, should draw up behind the Essonne, despatched Caulaincourt to Paris to say he would accept whatever terms the allied sovereigns might offer, and turned again towards Fontainebleau. The reply from Paris was that he must abdicate, before any terms could be offered: so that, after in vain trying to induce his marshals to lead his troops, under his own head command, upon Paris, he renounced the crown of France in a solemn deed. The emperor Alexander, and king of Prussia, who were at M. Talleyrand's hotel in the capital, agreed instantly that Napoleon should keep his title of emperor, and have full sovereignty over the little island of Elba, with a suitable allowance of money; that the empress should have the duchy of Parma; and that all the Buonaparte family should receive pensions.

On the 20th of April, 1814, the fallen emperor desired the relics of his imperial guard might be drawn up in the courtyard of the castle of Fontainebleau. He advanced to them on horseback; and tears dropped from his eyes as he dismounted in the midst. 'All Europe,' said he, 'has armed against me; do not lament my fate: be faithful to the new sovereign whom your country has chosen. I will record with my pen the deeds we have done together. I cannot embrace you all,' he continued, taking the commanding officer in his arms, 'but I embrace your general. Bring hither the eagle. Beloved

eagle! may the kisses I bestow on you long resound in the hearts of the brave. Farewell, my children, farewell my brave companions—surround me once more,—farewell! Amidst the silent but profound grief of the party, he hurried into the carriage which was waiting for him, and commenced his journey to the coast; not, however, without having made the painful observation that his domestics, almost to a man, had forsaken him. He called aloud for Constant, his head valet, on taking his seat in the vehicle; but that faithless servant had concealed himself, that he might not be obliged to follow him to Elba, though he had, on the preceding day, received from him a present of 50,000 francs. Count Bertrand was the most distinguished person of the fallen emperor's immediate suite.

Napoleon passed through Montargis on the 22d of April, in a carriage-and-six, with about 25 horsemen behind him. Four commissioners (Russian, Austrian, English, and Prussian) were, with their suites, in about twenty carriages, with the baggage, suite, and newly-appointed domestics of the ex-emperor. The foot-guards of the town were drawn out under arms, but as the procession passed gave no sign either of approbation or the contrary. The people of Lyon incessantly cried out, 'Vive le Roi!' as the cortège passed into and out of their city; and Napoleon, knowing that the south of France was unfavourable to his cause, became alarmed for his personal safety, assumed the costume of an Austrian officer, and begged to sit as one incognito at the commissioners' table at meals. It was at the inn of La Caladre, a little village of Provence, that he displayed the greatest timidity. The hostess, not recognising him, came into his room, calling out 'The Emperor is a villain, and we hope to catch him here that we may drown him!' Napoleon hereupon would neither eat nor drink, turned away to a window and wept, and soon after occupied himself in devising the most

singular costumes for disguise. When left a few minutes in a room by himself, he was heard to exclaim in agony, 'Oh! Richard, Oh! mon roi! L'univers t'abandonne!' and upon joining his suite again, he said, 'Men kill themselves for love,—folly! They kill themselves that they may not live dishonoured—weakness! But to survive the loss of an empire, and the outrage of one's contemporaries—that is true courage!'

His fears were not always chimerical. In one place, when the train stopped to change horses, a woman approached one of the commissioners, and said, 'In the name of Heaven, sir, give us leave to plunder him: you have as much reason to complain of him as we have. It is not cruelty, but justice.' At Montelimart, he took it into his head that the commissioners themselves were going either to poison or to drown him: he would now therefore eat nothing unless prepared by the master of bakers, who had accompanied him from Paris, and acted as his cook. Calling for M. Chanbane, the landlord, he asked, 'At what time shall I arrive at Avignon?' 'To-morrow, about six or seven in the morning.' 'I shall arrive in daylight, then: the roads must be very bad.' 'They are not good, sir.' Napoleon, then putting his hand to his forehead, uttered these broken expressions: 'Six or seven in the morning: it will be day, broad day. The people of Avignon still love the maintenance of grandeur, even to folly; their heads are hot, elevated, like the natives of Provence. In that country is the famous *glacière*. I do not wish to enter Avignon. Let horses be brought without the ramparts—it is there they shall be changed.'

Avignon had suffered so much from the Revolution, that it regarded the fall of Napoleon as the moment of its returning prosperity and happiness. The imperial insignia had all disappeared, and the white cockade was in every hat, when, on Sunday the 23d, three carriages en-

tered the town, bearing the imperial arms. 'Down with the tyrant!' became the universal cry; and the British officer in command of the escort was deeply affected when he saw it probable that the whole party might be overpowered by the furious mob, in spite of the guarantee given by the allied powers for the safe conduct of Napoleon. Urging onwards, therefore, the three carriages, he remained with his men in Avignon, until the arrival of that wherein Buonaparte was; and terrific indeed was the tumult when it entered the town. Men and women surrounded the vehicle, calling out for their children and relatives, victims of his ambition, and complaining of all the injuries they had endured. Already one man had seized the handle of the carriage-door, when a servant of Napoleon, who was sitting on the box, attempted to draw his sabre to defend his master. 'Foolish man!' exclaimed the English officer, 'stir not!—and you, friend,' said he to the man at the door, 'remember he is a prisoner already.' Napoleon, letting down the coach-glass in front, with much agitation cried out three times to his domestic to remain quiet, and then made signs of thanks to the officer, who, seeing the crowd hesitate, ordered his troop to face about, and clear the streets. This was effected with a speed little expected by the gallant commander; and he then ordered the postilions to drive away at full gallop, Napoleon having only time to exclaim from the coach-window, 'Bien obligé!' General Bertrand was in the left corner of the carriage; but he did not stir, nor utter a word, while all this was passing. At Donzère and Aix, the party was received with every mark of hatred; and on quitting Orgon, Napoleon, giving himself up for lost, changed his carriage, name, and dress, to escape, if possible, the danger, which became every minute more alarming. He arrived at Frejus, dressed as an Austrian officer, with a Russian pelisse; and

on his head he wore a Prussian cap, adorned with a very large white cockade! In this strange garb he was completely disguised: besides, he had a grisly beard, his eyes were hollow, and his aspect was that of one wholly beside himself. He expressed a wish to make but one step from the carriage to the ship which was to carry him to Elba. The bad state of the roads making it advisable to bring up the English frigate *Undaunted*, to St. Raphæan, rather than to St. Tropez, the cortège arrived in the former village (the very spot at which Buonaparte had landed from Egypt) on the 27th of April. On that day the four commissioners, and captain Usher of the *Undaunted*, dined with the ex-emperor; and on the following morning early, the whole went on board the frigate. Of the passage to Elba, and the occurrences in that island, until the return of the ex-emperor in the next year to those inviting shores which were ever in his view, an account will be found in the before-named memoir of Napoleon.

Meanwhile Louis XVIII., the brother of the unfortunate Louis XVI., and uncle of the equally unhappy Louis XVII., had been restored to the throne of his ancestors, and had taken up his residence at the palace of the Tuileries, in a few days after the departure of Napoleon. That prince had been known as 'Monsieur' during his brother's life, and, at the opening of the Revolution, had shown himself the friend of rational reform. When compelled, through jacobin violence, to emigrate, 1791, he took up his abode successively at Verona, Venice, somewhere in Germany, and then at Warsaw, and Mittau. By the treaty of Tilsit, however, 1807, he was compelled to quit the continent; and an asylum being thereupon offered him by the British government, he removed to England, and took up his abode in the village of Hartwell, two miles from Aylesbury, in Buckinghamshire. There he resided with a

few attendants, scarcely to be dignified with the name of a court, until his restoration in 1814; and during his sojourn of seven years at Hartwell, he acquired, by his remarkably easy temper and condescending manners, the esteem, not to say the affection, of most of his neighbours. The poor of Hartwell are still indebted to Louis XVIII., for the annual proceeds of 100*l.*, appropriated to the purchase of clothing &c. The duke of Clarence, afterwards king William IV., was the admiral appointed to convey king Louis to his own shores; and the heir of the Capets had no sooner assumed the reins of government, than he issued a decree, wherein he declared himself a constitutional, not an absolute, monarch; promised a total oblivion of the past; and intimated that he should be shortly ready to offer to the French people a charter, wherein the rights of the three estates respectively would be found carefully regarded. The charter was accordingly promulgated in a few days; and it is a sufficient compliment to the good sense and even the wisdom of Louis XVIII., to state, that the document is still (save a few not very important alterations made in 1830) the fundamental law of France.

King Louis was meditating some extremely rational schemes for carrying out the charter he had so judiciously granted, when he was astounded by the intelligence that Napoleon Buonaparte, having escaped from Elba, had landed in the south of France, and was on the full march, with all his own revolted troops, towards Paris. The king, in his anxiety to display to the old friends of Napoleon his wish to bury animosities, had kept about his person, and even advanced to high offices and dignities, many of the marshals created by that personage; and, amongst these, marshal Ney stood foremost to assure his majesty that he need fear nothing—for that, sooner than France should again be deceived and ruined, he would head

the army then around Paris, meet the disturber of nations, and bring him cooped in an iron cage, to be presented at the foot of his throne.' With his usual sagacity, however, Louis resolved not to wait at the Tuileries for the arrival of the enemy of his house, however well caged he might be by the marshal of his own creation; and he, without loss of time, began a journey to Ghent, as to a place whence, if necessary, he could easily be carried back into England.

On the 1st of March, 1815, having narrowly escaped a French ship of war, Napoleon landed at Cannes,—the day of the *violets*, the secret symbol of his return,—and with 800 soldiers began his march towards Paris. As he proceeded, he was joined by the labouring population, and successively by each troop of soldiers sent to crush his progress: even marshal Ney, in spite of his sworn fidelity to Louis XVIII., and of his promise to bring the disturber caged as a wild beast, to the feet of his majesty, joined his former master at Auxerre. On the 19th, Napoleon slept once more in the chateau of Fontainebleau; and on the morning of the 20th he advanced through the forest towards Paris, in full knowledge that marshal Macdonald was marching with a large force to oppose him.

It was about noon when the marshal's troops, listening with delight to the loyal strain of 'Vive Henri Quatre,' perceived suddenly an open carriage among the trees, coming at full speed towards them, followed by a handful of Poles with their lances reversed. The little flat cocked-hat, the gray surtout, the person of Napoleon, was recognised. In an instant the men burst from their ranks, surrounded him with cries of 'Vive l'Empereur,' and trampled their white cockades in the dust. On that same day Napoleon entered Paris, and found in the apartments of the Tuileries, which the king had just vacated, a brilliant assemblage

of those who had formerly filled prominent places in his own councils, all desirous to support his cause. Indeed all France seemed in his favour, save the ancient loyal provinces of Brittany and La Vendée; where the standard of legitimacy was raised against him by the Chouans, and maintained by them during his rule of 'an hundred days.'

It was from foreign nations the adventurous exile had most to fear; and he was hardly reseatd on the throne, when he learned that he must maintain it against the united Austrians, Russians, Prussians, and English; and his preparations to meet this gigantic confederacy were most energetic. By May, 1815, he had raised 370,000 men in arms, including 40,000 chosen veterans, in the most splendid state of equipment and discipline, a large and brilliant force of cavalry, and a train of artillery of proportionable extent and excellence; and having, in the assembly of the Champ-de-Mai, made all his adherents swear to a new constitution, he set off for the Netherlands, exclaiming as he entered his carriage, 'I go to measure myself against Wellington!' Blucher's army of Prussians, 100,000 in number, communicated on the right with the left of the Anglo-Belgian army of the duke of Wellington, which consisted of 35,000 English, 5000 Brunswickers, and a motley host of Belgians and others, in all 75,000. On the 16th, at Quatre Bras, Amand, and Ligny, various contests took place, and the loss was great on both sides; the gallant duke of Brunswick fell, and Blucher was more than once in imminent danger, and obliged at once to retreat; a course which the duke of Wellington followed, in order to get his position on the plain of Waterloo, which he had previously hoped might be the spot of conflict.

At length the 18th of June arrived; and Napoleon, who had feared the English would retreat till the Russians should come up, was delighted, on reaching the eminence of La Belle

Alliance, to behold the duke's army drawn out upon the opposite side, waiting his attack. 'At last, then,' he exclaimed, 'I have these English in my grasp!' It was about noon, when the rain, which had been incessantly falling for thirty hours, had abated, though the weather continued gusty and stormy, that Jerome Buonaparte began the battle. The English formed in squares, and defied all their enemy's efforts. The next attempt was made on the British centre, by cuirassiers and infantry; but the English heavy cavalry made them retreat, and in pursuing them the gallant Picton was killed. The third assault was against the British right, where the infantry, in a double line of squares, placed chequerwise, with thirty field pieces before them, were drawn up. The French cuirassiers drove the artillerymen from their guns, and then rode fiercely to within ten yards of the squares behind. In an instant a most deadly musket fire began from the latter, and this magnificent force was almost annihilated. The French cannonade now opened so furiously along their line, that the duke made the English lie flat on the ground for a space, to diminish its effects. He had lost 10,000, and Buonaparte 15,000 men.

It was six in the evening, and Napoleon saw that a decisive blow must be given, before the Prussians should arrive. He therefore brought up his guard, the flower of his army, and urging them to charge boldly under Ney, retired to the heights of La Belle Alliance with a spy-glass. The duke of Wellington hereupon dismounted, and placed himself at the head of his line. Nothing could withstand the assault of the British, for the first moment acting on the offensive. The old guard gave way. Napoleon from his station observing what was doing, turned suddenly pale, and exclaiming, 'Tout est perdu!' galloped off to Charleroi. At the critical moment of the shaking of the old guard by this attack in front. Blucher was seen emerging

with his columns from the neighbouring woods : whereupon the fatal cry of, 'Sauve qui peut !' ran through the French army, and all was over. Blücher agreed to pursue the fugitives, while the duke rested his men ; and it was soon ascertained that this glorious victory had left the latter loser 15,000 slain. The duke and one other officer alone came off without injury. Buonaparte's loss was 45,000. On the night of the 20th, Napoleon arrived alone in Paris ; on the 22nd he signed another act of abdication, in favour of his son ; and he was then requested by the provisional government of Fouché, Carnot, and three more, to retire to Malmaison. Fouché, having recommended him to escape to America, informed the English government of what he had advised ; at Rochefort, consequently, when he hoped that the *Bellerophon*, under captain Maitland, would receive him as a freeman, he was told he must be at the disposal of the English government. He appealed from on board that vessel to the Prince Regent of England, calling him 'his most generous enemy', but it was decided he should be exiled to St. Helena ; and the Northumberland, commanded by admiral sir George Cockburn, was appointed to convey him thither forthwith, accompanied by four of his friends and their families, Bertrand, Montholon, Lascazas, and Gourgaud, a surgeon, and twelve domestics. Of the remainder of the life of this extraordinary person some account is given at the close of his so often alluded-to memoir. That is a personal, the above a political, history of the man.

Upon this second subjugation of the 'modern Charlemagne,' Louis XVIII. was a second time restored to sovereign power ; and of his period of rule, a sketch will be found in the closing portion of king George's reign.

RUSSIA UNDER PAUL I. AND ALEXANDER I.—PAUL I. PETROVITZ succeeded his mother, Catherine II., on the Muscovite throne, 1796. His

czarina was a princess of Württemberg, and niece of the king of Prussia. Paul took an active part, at his accession, in the general confederacy of European monarchs against revolutionary France ; and sending Suvarov with an immense force into Italy, that general, in conjunction with the Austrians, drove the French troops almost entirely from the peninsula. Another Russian army was at the same time despatched to join the English in Holland, with a view to attack the northern frontier of France. But on a sudden, influenced by the solicitations of a beautiful woman, who had been sent by the cabinet of Paris to the court of St. Petersburg to second the labours of diplomatic intriguers, Paul recalled his troops, made peace with the revolutionary government of France, and, with a corresponding audacity, seized every English ship that chanced to be in his ports, and sent off the sailors into Siberian exile. This and other like extravagancies of the emperor, soon caused a conspiracy against him on the part of his own nobles, who were, as a body, hostile to French interests, and especially opposed to the principles of the Revolution. Paul was at his palace of Michailov, in bed, when some young men of his court, who had purposely intoxicated themselves at an entertainment, arrived at the place in the night of March 23, 1801. Generals Subov (the last favourite of Catherine II.) and Benningesen took the lead ; and, accompanied by Arkamakov, an aide-de-camp, who daily made reports to the czar, induced the valets of the royal sleeping-apartments to open the door, by telling them it was already six in the morning instead of two. The servants, on seeing the party enter in arms, escaped ; but an hussar, who was in the anteroom, resisted, and was cut down. Benningesen and Subov now rushed forward to the czar's chamber ; and Subov, not seeing him in his bed, cried 'Good God ! he has escaped !' Benningesen, however, more composed, having made a care-

ful search, discovered Paul crouched behind a screen. Approaching him, he announced to him that he was a prisoner, in the name of his son, the emperor Alexander, that his life should be respected, but that he must make no resistance. Paul made no answer; but it was easy to perceive, by the glimmering of a single night-lamp, that his confusion and terror were extreme. While Benningsen was examining the room, to guard against surprise, Paul had sufficient time to recover; and advancing in his nightcap to the middle of the room (having a flannel gown thrown over his shoulders, and being without either shoes or stockings), he said to his rebellious officers, 'What have I done to you, sirs, to merit this conduct?' The only reply of Subov was, 'For these four years you have tortured us!' and as several more actually drunken conspirators entered the chamber at the instant, Subov departed in search of the grand-duke Alexander, who, aware of the plot, was, with his consort and his brother Constantine, in an apartment of the palace below. Amongst the newly-arrived portion were several officers, burning with rage against the czar for having been deprived, on account of alleged misconduct, of military rank; and Benningsen, seeing Paul begin to resist, entreated him to be passive. A general of artillery, Prince Tatchvil, flew upon the czar with such violence, that he threw him down, and severely wounded him against a marble table; and four or five others instantly, in the most cowardly manner, assailed him while lying prostrate, overturning both the screen and the lamp, so that the room was in complete darkness. Benningsen had scarcely time to run to the corridor for a light, when, on his return, he perceived the czar lying on the ground, strangled with a sash. Paul had made but a slight resistance to this last brutal act; he had only put his hand between the sash and his neck, and exclaimed, 'Gentlemen, for Heaven's sake leave me

time to pray to God!' when his murderers completed their bloody work. The unfortunate prince was in his forty-eighth year.

ALEXANDER I. succeeded to the throne upon the murder of his father, 1801, and instantly put an end to the war with England. Uniting with England, Prussia, and Austria, against France, 1805, a campaign ensued, which was notably disastrous to the allies; and after their complete defeat at Austerlitz, Alexander returned to Russia with his shattered forces. Again joining with Prussia against Napoleon, he was again beaten with terrible loss at Eylau and Friedland, 1807; whereupon, coming to an armistice, the emperors of France and Russia met in a tent erected on a raft in the midst of the river Niemen, and from enemies were converted into such ardent friends, as to agree (it is said) to divide Europe between them. The treaty of Tilsit which ensued, showed Alexander the opponent of all his former allies; and for five years he acted in close union with Napoleon, depriving Sweden of Finland, and obtaining eastern Galicia from Austria. In 1812, however, the autocrat broke with the French emperor, on account of his seizure of the territories of his brother-in-law, the duke of Oldenburg; and allying with Sweden (Bernadotte being the crown-prince), he saw Napoleon enter his dominions with a vast force in the month of June. Alexander had long been at war both with the Persians and Turks; but he came to terms with the latter, in order to contend the better with his active opponent, who, as he advanced into Russia, found every town deserted and even burned by the inhabitants, and the country every where about him a desert. Alexander was with Bernadotte in Finland, when he heard of the entry of the French into Smolensk. 'Should Petersburg be taken,' he exclaimed, 'I will retire into Siberia, resume the ancient customs of our long-bearded ancestors, and return

anew to conquer the empire!' 'That resolution,' returned the crown-prince, 'will free Europe.' The calamitous issue of Napoleon's campaign is briefly treated of in the reign of that extraordinary man: after the entrance of Alexander with William Frederick of Prussia into Paris, at the head of 150,000 troops, 1814, the deposition of the modern Charlemagne followed, and the two victorious sovereigns paid a three weeks' visit to England. The congress of Vienna now agreed to the union of the better part of Poland with Russia; and on Napoleon's return from Elba, Alexander again repaired to Paris, with the emperor of Austria and king of Prussia, and projected the celebrated 'holy alliance,' subsequently entered into for the preservation of universal peace on Christian principles. The remainder of the autocrat's reign was occupied in conflicts with the ancient barbaric enemies of his country, the Persians, Kalmucks, and Turks; and he died of a fever, aged 48, 1825. A conspiracy of a formidable nature, having for its object the assassination of the emperor and others of his family, in order to place the empress alone upon the throne, had long been on foot, when Alexander died. No fit opportunity had occurred for the *émeute*; and thus, it would seem, he happily escaped the murderer's hand. The matter was discovered instantly after the emperor's decease, as will be shown. When Alexander ascended the throne, the Russian empire was nearly as it had been left, a century before, by Peter the Great; and there is no other instance in history of the rise of an old established nation, in the brief space of twenty-five years, from a condition of comparative rudeness, incivilization, and insignificance, to a state of positive prosperity, polish, and power.

SWEDEN UNDER GUSTAVUS IV. AND CHARLES XIII.—Gustavus IV. succeeded upon the assassination of his father, Gustavus III., 1792, and instantly evinced the greatest zeal for staying the progress of the French

revolution. At length, in 1803, declaring his full resolve to support legitimacy, he made an excursion through Germany, in order to unite all the princes of the empire against Napoleon; and being infatuated by reading Jung's 'Commentary on the Apocalypse,' he considered the letters composing 'Napoleon Buonaparte' to represent the mystical number 666, or mark of the second beast of St. John's Revelation; and moreover, that he himself was called on to overthrow his dominion. So firmly convinced did he become of the truth of his discovery, that he thought nothing more necessary for the fulfilment of the prediction, than an unqualified refusal to treat with Napoleon. No precaution on his part would be requisite to enable him to accomplish the intention of heaven. Accordingly, when besieged in Stralsund by a French army, he expected the visible interposition of an angel in his behalf. But when this angel, who was to be four German miles in height, did not appear, and the French batteries were nearly completed, he thought it requisite to attend to his own safety, and forthwith retreated to the island of Rugen. The king, notwithstanding these eccentricities, had all along been very popular with his people; and the most glorious results would have taken place, had he understood how to profit by the disposition of his subjects. But his management of the war in 1808, the deplorable state of the finances, his abandonment of even the English alliance, and his firm resolution to see his country fall, rather than make terms with the French, caused col. Aldesparre, who commanded the western army, to plan his dethronement. Gustavus appears to have discovered that danger was impending, since on a sudden he endeavoured to possess himself of the funds deposited in the bank of Sweden. Having sent notice to the commissioners of his intention, he arrived at the bank with a military escort, March 13, 1809, and demanded pos-

session of the money; but the officers of the bank having apprized the States of the matter, generals Klingspar and Adlerkreutz met the king at the establishment, and endeavoured to make him aware of the impropriety of his conduct. Gustavus, however, treated them as rebels, and ordered the soldiers to remove them from his presence by force. Adlerkreutz then advanced, seized the king by the breast, and cried with a loud voice, 'In the name of the nation I arrest thee, Gustavus Wasa, as a traitor.' Of the soldiers who were present, about forty endeavoured to defend the king; but the majority followed the call of the general to carry into effect the orders of the diet. Gustavus defended himself with desperation; and it was only by force they could disarm him. He tore himself loose from the hands of the soldiers, and had very nearly escaped, but was again secured, and confined in an apartment, where for several hours he raved like a madman. Immediately upon the arrest, the duke of Sudermania, uncle of the king, issued a proclamation, in which he announced that he had been called to the head of a regency. On the 24th of March, Gustavus was brought to the castle of Gripelholm, where he gave in his abdication; and on the 29th there appeared the decision of the diet, by which Gustavus IV., and all his direct descendants (a strange Swedish political rather than legal decision), were declared to have forfeited their rights to the Swedish crown, which same was conferred on the duke of Sudermania, as CHARLES XIII. Gustavus left Sweden shortly after his deposition; and during his exile, he travelled through most of the countries of Europe, but lived chiefly in the little town of St. Gall, in Switzerland. With the unpretending name of colonel Gustavson, he renounced all external observances that might remind him of his former rank; refused the appanage which Sweden offered him; urged forward a suit of divorce from his wife, which

he succeeded in obtaining 1812; and declining all communication with, as he obstinately refused all assistance from, his own family, subsisted on the produce of his labours as an author, together with the little pension he drew as a colonel. Among his printed works, is one which systematically develops his peculiar religious and political notions; and it is clear that, beyond an eccentricity, amounting nearly to insanity, he was a martyr to his belief in the divine right of kings, and in the passive obedience and non-resistance of subjects. The moderation and discretion, as well as the steadfast tranquillity with which he endured his fall, did him infinite honour as a christian prince; and when his decease occurred at St. Gall, 1837, he was very sincerely lamented by thousands. His son, prince Gustavus, heir of the line of Wasa, is now a colonel in the Austrian service. Meanwhile the duke of Sudermania, as before said, had mounted the throne as Charles XIII., 1809; but being already advanced in years, and without family, the Swedes made choice, first of the prince of Augustenburg, and, on his death, of general Bernadotte, one of the most eminent military officers of the French republic, as crown-prince, or presumptive heir. On the decease, therefore of king Charles, 1818, general Bernadotte was allowed to ascend the throne of the Wasas, with free inheritance to his children; whereupon he assumed the title of Charles XIV.

DENMARK UNDER FREDERICK VI.—We have shown, vol. ii. 622, that Frederick, when prince-royal, and eighteen years old, was constituted regent of Denmark; and that he acted in that capacity until the decease of his father, Christiern VII., 1808; when he ascended the throne, as Frederick VI. During the war of the French revolution, Denmark observed a strict neutrality; but in contesting the right of search, as to her mercantile shipping, insisted upon by England, which led her into a de-

fensive alliance with Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, she brought upon herself the loss of her east and west India colonies, and suffered severely in the naval fight of Copenhagen, (Nelson being in command of the British,) 1801. The treaty which ensued restored her colonies to her. The peace of Tilsit, in 1807, in which there were secret articles, stipulating that the whole Danish navy should be delivered over to the French emperor, occasioned, however, a fresh rupture with England. This commenced with the appearance of a formidable force, under earl Cathcart and lord Gambier, on the coast of Seeland, and was carried to open hostilities upon the refusal of the Danish government to surrender their fleet, consisting of 15 ships of the line, 14 frigates, and three brigs, as well as their timber, and the naval stores then in the yards and arsenal of Copenhagen. Lord Gambier, in consequence, bombarded the Danish metropolis from the 2d to the 5th of September, forced it to capitulate after a considerable part of the town had been burned, and carried away the fleet to England. In November following, a formal declaration of war was issued by the English government; and Denmark, whom the outrage at Copenhagen had effectually thrown into strict amity with France, was again stripped of her colonial possessions, and not only lost the islands of Anhalt and Heligoland, but the whole of her foreign commerce. Even after the destruction of Napoleon's armies in Russia, and in spite of the efforts of the great European powers in 1813, she could not be induced to renounce her French alliance; and the summons to surrender Norway to Sweden impelled her still more strongly to persist in that close union. The consequence was, that the crown-prince of Sweden entered Holstein and Schleswig, and, by his successful progress, terrified Frederick into signing the treaty of Kiel, 1814. In virtue of its terms, Denmark gave up Norway

to Sweden, and received Pomerania in lieu; but in 1815, Pomerania was ceded by the Danish government to Prussia, in consideration of obtaining the duchy of Lauenburg, and a considerable sum of money. In making peace with England, Frederick recovered the colonial possessions of his state, but still had to lament the loss of his navy, and of the island of Heligoland. From the period of the victory of Waterloo, 1815, to the close of the life of the king, Denmark proceeded in an uniform career of peacefulness; her connexion with other nations having little to do with real traffic, through the dearth of her own staple products, but depending on the hire of her merchant-ships. Denmark may be called the carrier of Europe, lending, or letting out, as she does, her numerous vessels, with their sailors.

In 1834 the States made a new division of the kingdom into four electoral districts, each of which has at present its provincial assembly: these districts are the Danish islands, having 70 representatives, Jutland 55, Schleswig 44, and Holstein 48. The states of Lauenburg are of very ancient foundation: they consist of the hierarchy, nobles, and representatives of towns, but seldom meet in full assembly, their affairs being despatched by a deputation holding annual councils under the presidency of a marshal. We have shown (vol. ii. 270) how Denmark, in 1660, became an absolute monarchy, under Frederick III.; and, notwithstanding the above electoral arrangements, the kings of Denmark are still, in the main, despotic. As duke of Holstein, the Danish ruler is a member of the German Confederation, and furnishes 3900 men to the tenth corps of the confederate army. (See *Germanic Confederation*.) The king of Denmark must profess the Augsburg form of faith; his nobility are comprised in one duke, 19 counts, and 12 barons; the Danish orders of knighthood are the Elephant, Danebrog, and that of 'L'Union Parfaite,'

the last admitting even females. A recent year's income of the government was a million and a half sterling, with an expenditure beyond it (it being the fashion for European states to get into debt), of about 30,000/. The island of Iceland, described in vol. i. 419, is a colony of Denmark. King Frederick VI. died, much esteemed by his people, aged 71, Dec. 3d, 1839; when he was succeeded by Christian VIII., the present sovereign, his nephew.

PORTUGAL UNDER THE REGENCY OF DOM JOAO MARIA JOSSE. — Dom John having been declared sole regent, in consequence of the insanity of his royal mother, Maria Francisca Isabel I., 1789, that prince, as the ally of England, took a feeble part in the war with revolutionary France; beyond which, and a forced treaty with Napoleon, 1804, nothing important occurred until 1807, when Napoleon threatened Portugal with an invasion, because of the prince's refusal to break his neutrality, by joining France against Britain. On the assembling of 40,000 French soldiers at Bayonne, the English residents resolved on quitting Portugal, and the court on escaping to its colony of Brazil; but when on the point of departure, the regent suddenly determined to make concessions to Napoleon, and even signed an order for detaining the few British subjects who had not yet embarked. Sir Sidney Smith, with his squadron, which had come mainly to aid the Portuguese in their escape, blockaded the Tagus most rigorously thereupon, and thus shut in the prince's fleet; and the regent, when he found that, before his apologies could reach Napoleon, the emperor had, with his usual fiat, declared 'the house of Braganza to be no more,' gladly accepted the protection of the English, and was safely conveyed from the coast. On his arrival at Rio Janeiro, prince John issued a manifesto, 1808, declaring war against France, annulling all the treaties he had been compelled to conclude by Buonaparte (including that by which he had bound Portugal to be neutral,

1804), and affirming that he would never agree to a cession of his country. The events which followed this extirpation of all the wealthy classes of Portugal are connected with the Peninsular war. The queen died 1816; and great disturbances breaking out in 1820, the regent (now king John VI.), deemed it prudent to restore order by his presence, and accordingly returned to Lisbon, 1821.

GERMANY UNDER LEOPOLD II. AND FRANCIS I. — Leopold II. succeeded his brother Joseph II., 1790; and having ruled the Tuscans for twenty-five years, was a very experienced prince at the time of his accession. He speedily made peace with the Turks, and brought the Netherlands to their allegiance by his judicious policy. Having entered into an alliance with England, he was preparing to make a stand against the encroachments of France, when a diarrhoea carried him to the grave, after a brief reign of barely two years, 1792. His son, Francis I., succeeded. He had been educated by his uncle, Joseph II., was with general Laudohn at the taking of Belgrade from the Turks, 1789, and had made himself well acquainted with affairs during his father's brief reign. The first disturbance he received was from Louis XVI., whom the legislative assembly had forced to declare hostilities against him, in consequence of the manifesto of his general, the duke of Brunswick. When Buonaparte succeeded to the command of the French in that war, the emperor was obliged, by the treaty of Campo Formio, 1797, to yield the duchy of Milan and Belgium to France; taking Venice and Dalmatia in exchange. In 1799 Austria allied with Russia and England against France; but Francis was still unfortunate, and after losing Lombardy, was glad to come to terms with his enemy at Luneville, 1801, whereby his brother renounced Tuscany, and his uncle the sovereignty of Modena. When Napoleon had declared himself emperor of the French, 1804, Francis again joined

the party against him ; but the issue was still more unfavourable to him. After his marked defeat at Austerlitz, he saw the ancient empire of Germany dissolved, and by the treaty of Presburg, 1805, was forced to yield Venice and the Tyrol to the conqueror. He now relinquished his august titles of German and Roman emperor, and took the more humble one of hereditary emperor of Austria, with which his house has ever since been content. When Alexander of Russia and Napoleon, after the treaty of Tilsit, were devising changes which threatened the subversion of his throne, Francis, availing himself of Buonaparte's embarrassments in Spain, began a fourth war with his enemy, and that without any ally, 1809. All Germany now took an interest in the emperor's proceedings ; and the general hatred of the French yoke induced the peasantry to swell his ranks, while Schill and the duke of Brunswick-Oëls created diversions in his favour, and harassed his enemy. Vienna, however, was obliged to be abandoned ; but as the Austrians still kept in force, Napoleon was not sorry, after his victory at Wagram, to accept the proffered armistice of the archduke Charles, which ended in the peace of Schoenbrunn, 1809. In 1810 Buonaparte married a daughter of Francis ; and Austria was enabled to preserve a neutrality, as regarded the contest between France and Russia, until Napoleon refused to evacuate Germany in 1813. Francis then joined the Russians and Prussians ; and after mainly contributing to the victory of Leipsic, saw his troops enter the French territory, preparatory to the fall of Paris to his allies, 1814. To that capital he repaired in April, to hold conferences with the emperor of Russia and king of Prussia ; and on his return to Vienna, a grand congress of the European powers opened its sittings in his presence. After Napoleon's outbreak from Elba, 1815, Francis sent troops to occupy Lyon, while another force drove Murat from Naples, and restored the rightful king ; but from that period until his

death 1835, the emperor, delighted with something like a rest from his labours, interfered not with the affairs of other states. He died in his 67th year, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand I., the present emperor. The daughter of Francis, Maria Louisa, ex-empress of France, the widow of Napoleon, now duchess of Parma, saw her son, the duke of Reichstadt, sink into an early grave, 1832, to the great sorrow of all the imperial family.

THE SICILIES UNDER FERDINAND I.—This prince succeeded as Ferdinand IV. of Naples, at eight years of age, when his father received the crown of Spain, as Charles III., 1759: The marquis Tanucci, a very able minister, conducted the regency during his minority ; but when Ferdinand was of age, and had married Maria, daughter of the empress Maria Theresa, and sister of Marie Antoinette of France, 1768, his queen, as he was very careless respecting his authority, ruled the state nearly until her death in 1814, assisted by the various noblemen who succeeded each other at the helm. The Sicilies were governed in peace till 1777, when Tanucci was displaced for objecting to the queen's sitting in the council of state. An Irishman, named Joseph (or 'the chevalier') Acton, was, after organizing both the army and navy, which had become alike disordered, appointed to succeed him ; and under his management, all went on well until the breaking out of the French revolution. The queen naturally felt incensed against a people who were behaving so rigorously to her own sister ; and Naples joined the coalition of 1792 against France. Peace was, however, made with the Directory, through fear, 1796 ; but when the papal territory had been occupied by the French in 1798, a Neapolitan force of 60,000 men, commanded by general Mack, and accompanied by the king, drove the invaders out of Rome. The French soon rallied, and compelled Mack and the king to retreat towards Naples ; from which city Ferdinand,

the queen, and the court, removed to Sicily for security, in the ships under Lord Nelson, January 1, 1799, after bestowing large sums upon the lazzaroni to keep them faithful. The enemy meanwhile advanced upon Naples; and the populace, left without a government, murdered every Frenchman they could seize, and fought for three days in the streets with the invaders. The events which followed have been the tragic theme of many a lengthened relation. The lazzaroni at last agreed to an armistice with Championnet, the French commander; but they had no sooner done so, than a suspicion began to be entertained by them that Mack had acted traitorously in retreating so hastily from Rome. He was hereupon compelled to flee for refuge to Championnet himself; and when the rabble had missed their prey, they commenced, without regard to the armistice, a most murderous attack upon the French. The young prince of Molliterno, with as many liberal Neapolitans of good family as he could collect, endeavoured to bring his countrymen to order; but he was compelled to concert an attack upon the lazzaroni with Championnet, and on January 22, a fierce contest took place with at least 6000 peasants, who, unacquainted with the stratagems of war, fell into an ambuscade near the Caudine Forks (the spot where the Romans had been made to pass under the yoke of the Samnites), and were destroyed. On the following day Championnet gained possession of the heights in the rear of Naples, and prepared to storm it. But, with much generosity, that general endeavoured to prevent so terrible a waste of life, and sent a chief of squadron to the lazzaroni with terms. The messenger was received by a volley of musketry, and had the pommel of his saddle broken by a ball; and Championnet had no resource but to open a fire upon the city, though night was now fast approaching. The lazzaroni sustained the attack with astonishing

firmness, and, being 60,000 in number, the slaughter which ensued was terrible indeed. At the dawn of day the fury of the combatants redoubled; and final victory was yet uncertain, when a momentary cessation of hostilities took place, from the exhausted state of both parties.

In this interval, Championnet spoke to several of the respectable inhabitants who had crept from their houses; and professing to them a profound veneration for the city's patron saint, Januario, he proposed to put up instant prayers to him for the restoration of tranquillity. This intelligence was carried into the ranks of the lazzaroni; when a cry instantly arose of '*Vivent les Français!*' and crowds accompanied the general, while he paid his homage at the shrine of the saint. The news of his conversion spread like lightning through the city; and numbers of lazzaroni crowded round him when on horseback to kiss his boots, while one of the chiefs took his place at the head of the French troops, and haranguing his own terrible soldiers, ordered them to cease their fire, and ground their arms. He was heard respectfully, and obeyed; and a shout of general joy succeeded to the voice of mourning and the shrieks of despair. The war was at an end; and Championnet had the unexpected good fortune to make allies of his furious enemies on the very field of battle. A sudden eruption of Vesuvius, which had been quiet for many years, was (contrary to the usual notion of the people) regarded as a mark of St. Januario's approval. The situation of Championnet had been one of peril. The French Directory had actually commenced a secret treaty with king Ferdinand, to sacrifice him and his army; and had not the Neapolitans supposed him stronger in amount of force when they attacked him in Rome, he would undoubtedly have been lost. So mistaken had Mack been as to the French numbers, that three distinct offers were made of accommodation with Championnet,

when the latter was hemmed in on all sides, and could not rely upon the fidelity of a single regiment; and the garrison of Capua actually capitulated to him, in the supposition that the French army in the neighbourhood was immense.

But to return to Naples. The lazzaroni, who had hitherto been the most strenuous defenders of the royal cause (since they had regarded Moliterno and his partisans, like Mack, as mere tools of the French), were now loud in the defence of the new system; and began to evince the sincerity of their conversion by proceeding to pillage the palace, and the houses of such as had been attached to the court. This, however, Championet contrived to prevent; and with great tact he induced the people to abstain from acts which would injure their character as republicans in the eyes of France. The ungrateful Directory, finding their troops losing ground everywhere in Italy, recalled Championet just at this juncture, for what they termed disobedience of orders; it being their purpose to make him and the other generals of Italy account for the treasures they were said to have devoted to the use of themselves and the army. Cardinal Ruffo hereupon landed in Calabria from Sicily in June; and upon preaching a sort of crusade against the French, the Neapolitans rose in a mass, and everywhere murdered those whom they had so recently called brethren. Tens of thousands perished in a few days, either by private assassination, the sword, or the axe of the executioner; for the royalists condemned every one who had favoured the enemy. Thus Ferdinand saw his whole kingdom subdued again to his hand. It was on this occasion that lord Nelson stained his character, by supporting the severest measures against such as had, through fear, united with the French; and in no instance was his conduct more reprehensible than in the case of the aged prince Caraccioli. The admiral, however, considered the

course necessary to secure the throne of Ferdinand; and that sovereign rewarded the hero in a manner to display his deep sense of the services he had rendered.

In 1801 Ferdinand concluded a peace with France, but in 1805 again thoughtlessly permitted a Russian and English force to land in Naples, and attack Napoleon's army, then in Italy. The latter had no sooner gained the victory of Austerlitz, than he declared, 'the Bourbon dynasty had ceased to reign at Naples,' and sent Massena to occupy that kingdom. Ferdinand and his court withdrew a second time to Sicily; where, protected by English forces, they remained until 1815. A dreadful earthquake in Calabria destroyed 20,000 persons at the moment of Massena's occupation; but natural horrors were disregarded during so much civil agitation; and the fickle Neapolitans received as their new sovereign, February 1806, JOSEPH I. BUONAPARTE, the brother of their conqueror. The British in Sicily, under sir John Stuart, having been successful in a pitched battle with the French at Maida, July 1806, the whole island was soon after garrisoned by English troops; but we must for the present leave the court of Ferdinand, to return to the more interesting affairs of Naples.

King Joseph having been suddenly called by Napoleon to fill the throne of Spain and the Indies, the way to which had been cleared by the active services of Murat, the brother-in-law of the French emperor, the latter was invested by his relative with the sovereignty of Naples, as JOACHIM I., 1808. The new monarch put down at once the insurrections of Ferdinand's partisans in Calabria, and in 1810 made an attack upon Sicily itself. In the latter case he was repulsed by the British; and this want of success, together with the impossibility of inducing Napoleon to withdraw the 20,000 French soldiers who held military possession of his country, induced Murat to think

of means by which he might rule with somewhat more of independence.

King Joachim, though he had shown himself in Egypt, as well as in all the hard-fought early battles of Napoleon, a singularly intrepid man, was so extremely vain of his fine person, as to parade the streets of Naples decked in silks and satins; while, in going to battle, he was so arrayed as to resemble the chivalric knights of the Crusades, rather than a modern warrior. Buonaparte used to call him in derision, 'un roi de théâtre,' and 'king Franconi,' in allusion to the pompous director of a minor play-house at Paris. He was son of an innkeeper at Bastide Frontonnière; and, after a military education at Cahors, rose in the revolutionary army, became one of Napoleon's staff, and was rewarded with the hand of the emperor's youngest and most ambitious sister, Caroline, for his aid in obtaining him the first consulship. It is a fact that Joachim was concerting measures to throw off the yoke of Napoleon, when that extraordinary man called him to march with him, 1812, against the Russians. He at first hesitated; but drawn on by his own natural disposition, as well as by the ascendancy which his brother-in-law still preserved over him, he set out for Dresden with 10,000 troops. He was the most active of the French generals in the pursuit of the Russian army: but when he found Buonaparte resolved on advancing as far as Moscow, he declared he would not proceed. He, however, could not retreat; and prodigies of valour were performed by him in the sequel. A striking instance of his intrepidity occurred at Gjatze. Being annoyed by clouds of cossacks, who hovered about the head of his columns, and compelled him every now and then to deploy, he became incensed to the highest degree, and suddenly galloping up to the barbaric enemy unattended, exclaimed to them in an authoritative voice, 'Clear the way, you vermin!' It is

a fact equally incontestable, that these wild sons of the desert, awed by his manner, at once obeyed his command. After the disasters of Moscow, Murat abandoned the retreating army, and making the best of his way back to Naples, signified his intention of joining the Austrians. When, however, he heard of his relative's success in Saxony, he again took the command of his cavalry, and remained with him till the defeat of Leipsic, October, 1813. He then precipitately abandoned Napoleon's cause again, and in three months was in arms, on the Austrian side, against the viceroy of Italy, Eugene. When informed of his defection, Napoleon would not credit the fact: 'No,' he exclaimed, 'that cannot be! Murat, to whom I gave my sister! Murat to whom I gave a crown!'

The removal of Napoleon to Elba soon followed; but Murat found a violent opponent in Louis XVIII., and especially in Talleyrand, who considered it highly imprudent to have a creature of the ex-emperor's on a throne so important as Naples. Murat, therefore, scrupled not to despatch an emissary to congratulate his old master, when he heard of his having landed again in France. Soon after, at the head of 50,000 men, he advanced upon Tuscany, declaring himself 'the liberator of Italy.' He was, however, merely joined by the rabble; and having seen his army dispersed by the English and Austrians in several petty conflicts, he returned to Naples, only to quit it in disguise with a few attendants for France. His queen he left behind. When near Marsilles, he heard of the reverse of Waterloo, and that a price was set upon his head; and after concealing himself two months in a peasant's cottage near Toulon, he obtained a passage to Corsica.

The reception of king Joachim by the Corsicans was most hospitable; and it would have been well for him had he accepted the emperor of

Austria's offer of an abode in Germany, at the expense of giving up his regal title. With the Austrian passports in his pocket, (which had been brought to him by Macirone, formerly on his own staff,) he madly sailed for Naples with a small party, and landed at Pizzo in Calabria, October 8th, 1815. Some mariners recognising him by his splendid apparel, a shout was raised of 'Long live king Joachim!' but just as he had reached the town, a party of gendarmes met him, and fired towards his little company. The adventurer's situation was now desperate; and leaping from rock to rock, and from precipice to precipice, while the shot whistled round him, he at length regained the beach. But the vessel from which he had disembarked had sailed away! and just as some of his companions had got up to him, and were leaping with him into a fishing-boat which lay on the shore, the soldiers, followed by an immense mob, reached the party, and every musket was levelled at Murat. Strange to say, all who were with him were in a few moments either killed or wounded, though he himself remained unhurt; but he was now dragged from the boat, and hurried, with such of his followers as were still alive, to the prison of Pizzo. Here the fallen monarch was stripped of his purse, his diamonds, his passports, and a copy of the proclamation he had proposed making to the Neapolitans, and which of itself proved his breach of promise.

General Murziante, commandant of the Calabrias, was appointed to guard the prisoner; and a commission of military officers was selected to try him. Murat refused to acknowledge the authority of the tribunal, observing that his judges had all received their posts in the army from himself. It was on the 13th of October that one of the commissioners walked into his room, and read the sentence. He heard it unmoved, wrote a letter to his wife, and having cut off some locks of his hair, gave

them, together with the letter, to captain Starage, begging him to send them, as well as a seal which would be found in his hand after his death, to queen Caroline. The seal was a cornelian head of his wife. When the fatal moment arrived, he walked with a firm step to the place of execution. Twelve soldiers were drawn up in a narrow court, before whom he stood proudly and undauntedly, and whom he thus addressed: 'Soldiers, I had hoped better of king Ferdinand. Both in court and camp my object was the nation's good: at this hour of my death I have no other wealth than that of my actions. Soldiers, farewell! Do your duty—save my face—aim at my heart—farewell!' Then, turning his eyes downwards, he fixed them steadily on the cornelian seal, after fervently kissing it, and in an instant more fell. So died 'the dandy king,' whose errors must all be ascribed to a wretched education, and the consequent want of religious principle and moral energy. He had ever been ruled by impulse; and his main joy centred in the pomp and vanity and admiration of the world. Bravery, amounting to rashness, was his highest quality. His age was 48.

To return to Ferdinand and Sicily. As soon as Murat had satisfied himself of the inutility of any further attempt upon Sicily, 1810, the ministers of Ferdinand proceeded to regulate the affairs of the island; and they had to contend with the great jealousy of the people towards the exiled Neapolitans. The queen was as arbitrary as ever; while the king, pursuing his field-sports, most stoically bore the loss of half his kingdom; and no event of importance occurred until the discovery of a conspiracy at Messina, 1812, to turn out the British forces. As the plot was traced to the queen, the English interfered, Ferdinand resigned his authority into the hands of his son Francis, a new constitution was framed, and the queen's power was at an end. That princess left the island soon after,

and died at Vienna, 1814. In the last-named year, Ferdinand resumed the reins of government; and in 1815, on the death of Murat, returned to Naples, with the imposing title of 'Ferdinand I. king of the United Sicilies.' He ruled in peace till 1820; when a military revolt, set on foot by the Carbonari, compelled him to swear to a new constitution as liberal as that of Spain. The Sicilians hereupon tried to dissolve the union with Naples, demanding a parliament of their own; whereon the sovereigns of the Holy Alliance invited Ferdinand to a conference at Laybach, and there offered to crush the conspiracy. Austrian troops marched towards Naples, 1821, and having routed the Neapolitans at Rieti, the rest of the army willingly recalled their king. After reigning four years longer, with the constitution of 1815, he died, much lamented by his subjects, as a kind and well-intentioned monarch, 1825, having borne sway the extraordinary period of sixty-five years.

The *lazzaroni* are the commonest order of the people in Naples. Living in a fine climate, their wants are few; and the money that 60,000 of these persons earn by running on errands, holding horses in the streets, selling pumpkins and water-melons, &c., is more than sufficient to supply them with food at least, though not always with clothing. They live wholly on fish or fruit. From their habit of lounging on benches while waiting for employ at every corner of the city, they obtained their name, which means beggars (from Lazarus) or idlers. No poor Neapolitan will undertake steady work; and the *lazzaroni* ever act in concert in times of civil commotion, obeying then no one but the priests of their patron Januario. We have seen how Championet overcame them by his respect for the saint; and Kelly, the singer, in his visit to Naples, 1779, writes as follows, on the same subject: 'Nothing could stay the terrible eruption of Vesuvius but the pre-

sence of the bust of the saint at the mountain. (See *St. Januario*.) The archbishop refused to give it up to the mob; and even the king and queen appeared in a balcony of the palace, and entreated the people to abstain from such sacrilege. All, however, was in vain, until Father Rocco, a priest, came forth to the assembled multitude, who fell on their knees bareheaded on seeing him. He thus addressed them: 'What come ye here for, you infamous scoundrels? Would you disturb the saint in his holy sanctuary? Think ye, impious rascals, that if he had chosen the mountain to be silent, ere now he would not have caused it to be quiet? Hence, to your homes, ye vagrants, lest the saint, enraged at your infamous conduct, should command the earth to open and swallow you up!' This soothing speech, aided by a kick to one, and a knock on the head to another, fairly dealt to all within his reach, dispersed the *lazzaroni* without a single murmur.'

Mr. Matthews, in his Diary, 1818, thus speaks of this singular class. 'The finest-looking men in Naples are the *lazzaroni*; but if the name be at all connected with laziness, it has little application to the bearers of burdens in Naples. If they are fond of sprawling in the sun, they are enjoying the holiday of repose which they have earned by their industry, and which they have a right to dispose of according to their taste. They appear to be a merry, joyous race, with a keen relish for drollery; and they are indued with a power of feature that is shown in the richest exhibitions of comic grimace. I know few sights more ludicrous than that which may be enjoyed by treating a *lazzarone* to as many yards of macaroni as he can contrive to slide down his throat without breaking its continuity.'

The *Carbonari* is a religious as well as political Neapolitan combination, and especially comprises such landed proprietors of the provinces as are

under the rank of nobility. Murat gave the league his sanction, and then hastily proscribed it. (See *Rise of the Carbonari*.)

The chevalier Acton had become known at Naples by rescuing 4000 Spaniards from the Barbary corsairs. He was the son of an Irish physician, who had settled at Besançon. Being dismissed from the ministry, 1803, he remained in retirement in Sicily until his death, 1808.

SWITZERLAND MADE THE HELVETIC REPUBLIC, 1798.—The Swiss, from the time their independence had been acknowledged by the treaty of Westphalia, 1648, had maintained a prosperous and peaceful attitude, until the invasion of their country by the French, 1798; when the old constitution was subverted by those revolutionists, and a democratical faction placed at the head of affairs. Under the title of 'the Helvetic Republic,' the state proceeded as the close ally of its enslavers till 1802; when Napoleon declared its independence at an end, and converted Switzerland into a French province. In this shape it remained till 1814; when, Napoleon being sent to Elba, the ancient Helvetic constitution was restored, and has ever since continued in force. The reformed religion had very early been introduced into Switzerland by Zuinglius; and though not adopted by all the cantons, it became the public faith in others. At Geneva, a more rigid system of reform than that of Luther was taught by Calvin, which spread into many of the protestant countries, and is at present the national religion of Scotland, as well as of parts of Switzerland and Germany. The confederacy of the cantons is regulated by an annual diet, the president of which is called Landammann; the population is two and a half millions; the state has fine manufactures of watches, linen, and cotton; and its mountains, one of which, Mont Blanc, is the highest in Europe, are remarkable for accumulating ice and snow about their summits, which, suddenly giving way, usually do great injury to the country

beneath. The masses of ice, called *glaciers*, descend gradually, and settle on the lower fields; but those of snow, the *avalanches*, rush down without warning, and frequently overwhelm whole villages in an instant.

PRUSSIA UNDER FREDERICK WILLIAM II. AND FREDERICK WILLIAM III. — Frederick William II., grandson of Frederick William I., succeeded his uncle, Frederick the Great, 1786. Political errors soon lessened the credit gained by his predecessors amongst foreign courts; and the treasure left by his uncle (10 millions sterling) was wasted in useless wars, and by the extravagance of favourites. In 1787 he sent a force under duke Charles William Ferdinand of Brunswick, to compel the Dutch 'patriots' to acknowledge the authority of their Stadtholder; and this being effected, an alliance took place between England, Prussia, and Holland, at the Hague, 1788. In the war between Sweden and Russia in the same year, Frederick William, in conjunction with England, prevented any further attack upon Sweden by Denmark. Being jealous of the success of Russia and Austria in the Turkish war, he concluded an alliance with the Porte in 1790, and guaranteed its possessions. This measure having given offence to Austria, a Prussian army was assembled in Silesia, on the Bohemian frontier, and an Austrian army in Bohemia. The emperor Leopold II. did not wish for war with Prussia; and in the convention concluded at Reichenbach, 1790, between Austria and Prussia, he promised to restore the Turks all his conquests, except the district of Aluta. The party of Stanislaus II. in Poland, having proposed, after the first partition of the kingdom, to establish a new constitution, and to make the royal dignity hereditary in the house of Saxony, an alliance had been concluded with Prussia, 1791, by which the latter recognised the integrity of Poland, and promised to assist it with 40,000 infantry and 400 cavalry, in case any

foreign power should interfere in its internal affairs. After making peace with the Porte, Catherine II., who, without taking any share in the war then carrying on by Prussia and Austria against France, had calculated on their efforts, continued to reduce Frederick William to the alternative either of defending Poland against Russia, by virtue of his alliance with that state, or of making a second partition of it, in conjunction with Russia. Frederick William chose the latter, and in January, 1793, sent troops under general Millendorf into Great Poland, which occupied a tract of country of the extent of 1,100 German square miles, with a population, including Danzig and Thorn, of 1,200,000 inhabitants. Though the diet at Grodno was obliged to agree to this accession, as well as to a similar cession of territory to Russia, the Poles rose in 1794 under Kosciusko and Madaliuski, to recover their independence; in which insurrection the Russians and Prussians were several times defeated, till Kosciusko was taken prisoner, and Praga was stormed by Suvarov. Hereupon the third partition of Poland followed. All that remained, after the preceding partitions, was divided between Austria, Russia, and Prussia; by which the latter acquired a large addition of territory, and the independence of Poland was annihilated. In the war against France, Prussia sent 50,000 men to the Rhine, 1792, under the duke of Brunswick; but the duke failed in his plan of marching to Paris, and was actually compelled to make a retrograde movement. In April, 1795, Prussia was, in like manner, driven to make peace with the French republic, and to leave all her territories beyond the Rhine in its possession. Soon after drawing up a new code of laws, wherein the system of indirect taxation, imitated from the French by Frederick II., was then wisely (because of necessity, in the then pinched state of all Prussian consumers, whether of the productive or unpro-

ductive class,) abrogated, Frederick William died, aged 53, 1797.

His son, FREDERICK WILLIAM III., succeeded, and preserved long a strict neutrality with respect to the French revolution; and on that especial account, Buonaparte presented him with the House of Brunswick's electorate of Hanover, 1801. On finding, however, that the new emperor of France had purposed to resume his grant, Frederick William declared war again, 1806; and the consequences were the defeat of the Prussians under the duke of Brunswick at Jena (Yaynah), the capture of Hanover, by Napoleon, 1807, and the occupation of Berlin, the capital of Frederick William, by a French army. The emperor Alexander of Russia coming hereupon to the succour of the king of Prussia, the war proceeded; but the allied forces were defeated at Friedland, and a peace was forced on, in the issue, at Tilsit, 1807, by the provisions of which treaty, Frederick William was deprived of a full third of his dominions, to be added to France. Prussia continued thus diminished and crippled until 1812; when the retreat of Napoleon from Moscow became the signal to her, after enduring the most indignant treatment from her conqueror, once more to rise in arms. Until the fall of her great enemy in 1814, she continued firm in her alliance with his opponents; and when in the following year, he had made a last attempt to recover his power, she contributed largely, by her army under the gallant Blücher, to annihilate his cause at Waterloo. By the decision of the Vienna congress, the territories of Frederick William were restored to him, together with a great portion of Saxony, and some districts in the west of Germany; and he instantly sat down to bring into something approaching order, a country which, first, by having been the spot whereon the French revolution had been originally planned by Voltaire and the illuminati, was next, by the progress of that work of destruc-

tion, wholly demoralized, as it was at last, as if in retribution, almost blotted out as a nation by French tyranny. By the aid of the Jesuits, whose labours in Prussia, however elsewhere questioned, were most disinterested, religion and a regard for the laws were restored; and here we must speak of the peculiar state of religious opinion among the few Prussians that were found to entertain any, when Frederick William recovered his ancient authority. The systems of doctrinal belief, handed down by Luther and Calvin to the protestant part of Prussia, had, in process of time, and under the influence of that liberty of private judgment which those reformers also transmitted as a first principle of faith, become thoroughly decomposed. So far, in fact, had things gone, that the only alternatives in advance were either to deny Christianity, or to make an absolute separation between the province of dogmatic theology and that of religious belief; reducing the former to a mere department of philosophy, and the latter to a simple development of the individual character. The latter alternative was naturally accepted as the better in itself, and the more agreeable to the mystical tendencies of the German mind. In this condition of the religion of his country, Frederick, who had essentially a constructive genius, who appreciated the advantages, even if he had no especial faith in Unity, and who saw the means in his power, through the exhausted state of the dogmatic principle, determined upon founding a *new church*, by the amalgamation of the till then divided Lutheran and Calvinistic sects. With the assistance of his minister, M. Bunsen, he compiled a new liturgy, and arranged a new organization, to which such of the Lutheran and Calvinistic pastors as thought proper, were invited to conform on a certain day. The majority of them did so; and what was left optional at first, was eventually made compulsory on the

remainder. In this manner the dissensions of Lutheranism and Calvinism were extinguished in Prussia, and even in other protestant German states; and a new species of unity arose, in the shape of what is now designated 'The Prussian Evangelical Church.' A formidable task, however, still remained for king Frederick. The catholic (much the larger) portion of his subjects, and especially the Jesuits, who had been so instrumental in restoring order and religion, although they, with great wisdom, expressed their satisfaction at seeing one Christian schism less in Germany, were strongly opposed to the still further combination meditated by Frederick. That well-intentioned sovereign, on seeing success attend his exertions in a case where there must certainly have been, on either side, a great yielding of principles, since the faiths of Luther and Calvin, in their pristine integrity, are nearly as contradistinguished as Romanism and Protestantism, conceived he might blend even Romanism itself with his new church. This was to be effected by making 'open questions' of sundry points of faith held by the catholics; and certainly, in the then very lax state of religion among professing catholics in Prussia, the thing did not look wholly impracticable. The king's first attempt was made on the marriage-laws; and when the archbishop of Cologne opposed his views, he, after, however, a considerable discussion, deposed the prelate.

To understand this transaction, it should be known, that though the Prussian court and government are protestant, the catholic religion principally prevails throughout the state; and the see of Cologne has all the influence of a metropolitan one in other countries, where church and state go hand in hand. The university of Bonn, founded in 1818 by Frederick, has a theological professorship, under the especial control of the archbishop of Cologne; and Dr. Hermes, who had some time filled its

chair, and died 1835, had ventured to broach doctrines which the hierarchy pronounced heterodox. A bull, therefore, was issued by Pope Gregory XVI., condemnatory of the Hermesian notions, just after Clement, Baron Droste of Vischering, titular bishop of Calama, a man remarkable for self-denial, strict piety, and generally estimable qualities, had been elected to the archiepiscopal see, 1836. Several of the Bonn professors, and many others of the catholic clergy, had become converts to Hermes's opinions; but so convinced was the Prussian minister for ecclesiastical affairs, that the papal bull ought to be obeyed, that he intimated to the catholic faculty, 'they must beware of contravening the bull condemnatory of Hermes.' The new archbishop, being of the same mind, compelled the withdrawal of all the late professor's works from the divinity course; and he had just passed a decree to that effect, when the king's marriage-ordinance came forth. At once he declared that mixed marriages (catholics with protestants), which had hitherto been winked at in Prussia, and were now to be allowed without any restriction, were unlawful, unless a promise were previously given to educate all the issue of such marriages as catholics. He also instructed his clergy never to grant the nuptial benediction, until an affirmative had been given to that proposal. The Prussian ecclesiastical minister of state hereupon remonstrated; but the archbishop refusing to withdraw his ordinance, it was intimated to him from the throne, 'that his resignation would be accepted.' A considerable display of feeling on the part of the orthodox Romish clergy followed this proceeding; and violence would probably have been resorted to, in order to reinstate the prelate, had the latter not enjoined peace. There can be no doubt that the archbishop's attack on the system of mixed marriages was impolitic; but it is equally clear, that he acted on the conscientious conviction that they

tended to introduce division and unhappiness into society. In Austria under the circumstances, the boys are brought up in the father's, and the girls in the mother's faith; and in Bavaria, and other German states, it is by no means uncommon to have marriage contracts, wherein it is stipulated that all the children shall be brought up in the faith of the father or of the mother. But beyond all this, the university of Bonn is known to support opinions which belong neither to one church nor to the other; and the prelate's attempt to bring its tenets to at least consistency, was regarded as the main cause of his deposition.

Through the instrumentality of the same able diplomatist who had organized 'the evangelical church,' a settlement of the question in dispute between the king and the archbishop of Cologne, was obtained from the pope himself; and though the prelate was ultimately restored (see *Prussia under Frederick William IV.*), the concession of the whole question of mixed marriages, which was involved in the pope's sanction of his previous suspension, gave a complete triumph to the Prussian crown.

The disposition on Frederick's part to move with the 'spirit of the times,' so forcibly shown, it was thought, in this ecclesiastical matter, induced a large portion of the Prussian people to hope that a constitution, in the manner of Great Britain, would be awarded them. But Frederick's leading maxim was that of the Austrian minister, prince Metternich, a maxim displaying the most profound wisdom and knowledge of mankind,—'All for, but not through the people;' no popular government, in a country circumstanced as his was, but a government exercised by the sovereign and the state, so as to promote the people's best interests, could expect his countenance. To conciliate his subjects for refusing to accede to their wishes in this respect (that is, to grant them a *constitution*, for which they were obviously unfit), he spared

no effort to bestow upon them every other boon, and every public and private blessing. As regarded his officers, and almost his private soldiers, he laboriously inquired into every man's private circumstances and condition, administered to their domestic comforts, and not unfrequently assisted them by gifts and loans of money. He received every petition from every person, and answered as many as he could. He appeared in the streets with the dress and simplicity of a private gentleman; defending himself only by gravity and propriety of manners, and by the love and esteem which this species of conduct added to his known kindness and reputed wisdom and virtue, universally procured for him. He took also the right way to be both faithfully served, and heartily beloved by his ministers, household, and numerous personal friends—'amicos querens amando'—seeking love by love, doubling his benefits by the manner of bestowing them, and liberally and magnificently giving, not as the French say, 'en maître,' as a master, but in all cases as a friend. In this way, perhaps, no sovereign of the day has left behind him a better name, nor better realized the well-known assertion of the poet, 'nunquam libertas gratior extat, quam sub rege pio.' That he fell eventually into what in England is well understood by 'evangelical principles,' though in a very moderate degree, is easily to be accounted for. He had seen his country absolutely deprived of religious faith, and still saw it, till his decease, crowded with teachers of doctrines little in character above infidelity; and he conceived it better to have his subjects all professing Christians, no matter what differences might exist among them on certain points of both doctrine and practice, than to see them run back into the nullifidianism and neology of the illuminating philosophy. This most well-intentioned monarch died, sincerely lamented by his people, in the 70th year of his age, June 7th, 1840.

HOLLAND UNDER WILLIAM V.—This prince succeeded his father, William IV., as stadtholder, 1766; and as the Dutch connexions with the French had been annually commencing for some period, the English declared war against the United Provinces, 1780. A naval engagement near the Dogger Bank took place, 1781: this was favourable to the British, who effectually stopped the Dutch trade for a while, and got possession of most of their West India colonies. Peace was restored 1781. Probably, to their separation in interest from Great Britain, may be attributed the differences between the states-general and the emperor Joseph II., who, from the exhausted state of several of the European powers, seemed to have a favourable opportunity of accomplishing his designs. In 1781 he had been allowed to demolish the barrier of his dominions, for which the Dutch had contended so desperately in the time of queen Anne; and he now seemed desirous to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their respective nations was proposed to the States; but as this, when begun, 1784, was carried on in that tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch, the emperor, to bring matters to an issue, suddenly delivered in an ultimatum to the commissioners at Brussels, wherein he demanded the free navigation of the Scheldt in both its branches, to the sea; and in token of his confidence in the good intentions of the States, he determined to consider the river as open from the date of that paper. He then sent a ship under his flag, up the Scheldt; but as the Dutch ministry ordered it to be stopped, Joseph made immediate preparations for war. In November 1784, a small force of Germans, with some field pieces, having advanced towards the counterscarp of Lillo on the Scheldt, the commander of that fortress, resorting to the usual mode of defence in Holland, ordered the sluices to be opened, and com-

pletely inundated the flat country around for many miles. The loss of the West India colonies to England, and the probable success of the imperial arms on the present occasion, now excited the animosity of the aristocratic faction; who boldly accused the stadtholder of being the cause of all their misfortunes, by so openly expressing his predilection for the English at the beginning of the American revolution, 1775. William, however, was supported by a monarchical party sufficiently strong to enable him to seize on Vreeswick, 1786, a post of great importance to Utrecht, as it contained the sluices by which two whole provinces might be overflowed; and after a violent tumult at Amsterdam, in which several persons were killed, most of the regular troops of Holland revolted, and went over to the stadtholder. The disputes, however, still continued with extreme violence; insomuch that the princess of Orange herself was seized, and detained prisoner a whole night, by the aristocrats. The king of Prussia brought temporary quiet to the republic, by marching a force into Rotterdam; and a treaty was instantly signed, wherein the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the stadtholdership to the house of Orange in perpetuity.

This arrangement was upset by the French, 1795. Resolved on extending their empire as far in every direction as mere violence could effect, that restless people broke into Holland like its own waters; and the precipitate flight of William V. and his family to England was the result. The French general, Pichegru and his staff, having taken up their residence in the stadtholder's palace at the Hague, a ridiculous promulgation took place to all the world regarding 'the rights of man,' calling upon the Dutch, under the new title of the Batavian Republic, 'to resist oppression; to remember that all men are born with equal rights; that each man has a right to serve God as he pleases or does not

please; that all men are eligible to all posts and employments; that each one has the right to require each functionary of public administration to give an account and justification of his conduct; and that the people have at all times a right to change their form of government, to correct it, or to choose another.' Nothing, however, but fatal mischiefs resulted to Holland from this revolution. French forces remained to preserve the Dutch in the most abject submission; the oriental possessions of the provinces, their ships of trade, their ships of war, became the prey of the English; agriculture languished; their trade itself was transferred to Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia; and for the two factions which formerly existed, twenty now arose. At length, in 1799, the English were induced to hope that, by an invasion of the Dutch provinces they might rescue them from republican robbery, and restore their ancient government. Russia lent its generous and willing aid; the British fleet easily seized that of Holland; and the landing of a powerful English and Russian force was accomplished at the Helder. But the difficulties of the country, the inclemency of the season, and other disadvantages, which had not been foreseen, and could not be provided against, disappointed the hopes of the invaders. Holland remained under the power of the French; and in 1806 it was raised, as if in mockery, to the dignity of a kingdom, with Louis, the brother of Napoleon Buonaparte, for its sovereign.

The English were too much engaged in Spain to care further about Holland, until 1809; when to create a diversion in favour of Austria (which had been prostrated by Napoleon's victory at Wagram), an expedition was sent to the Netherlands, under the earl of Chatham and Sir Richard Strachan. The fortress of Flushing, and the island of Walcheren, were subdued; but the unhealthiness of the climate forced the conquerors to

evacuate these acquisitions, after the sacrifice of many valuable lives. It must be confessed that this unfortunate enterprise was badly conceived, and as illy executed. The armament did not reach the coast of Holland until Austria had been irretrievably ruined; and the main objects of the expedition, which were the destruction of the French fleet in the Scheldt, and the occupation of Antwerp, were scarcely attempted. In 1810, Louis Buonaparte, tired of his brother's iron yoke. (Napoleon having all along regarded Holland simply as an enslaved province of his empire,) resigned his crown; and from the period of that event until 1813, the country was *de facto* part and parcel of France. On the defeat of Napoleon at Leipsic, 1813, an insurrection began at Amsterdam, the stadtholder (son of William V.) was called over from England, and all the provinces of the Netherlands, catholic as well as protestant, (Belgium as well as Holland,) acknowledged him ruler. William V. had died in England.

NAPLES UNDER JOSEPH BUONAPARTE AND JOACHIM MURAT.—(see *the reign of Ferdinand I. of the Two Sicilies.*)

PERSIA UNDER LUFT ALI KHAN, &c.—An interregnum of ten years occurred after the death of Kharim Khan 1776; and the period was fearfully marked by bloodshed. Instantly on the death of Kharim being announced in Shirauz, two-and-twenty of the principal officers of the army, men of high rank and family, took possession of the citadel, with a resolution to acknowledge Abul Futteh Khan, the eldest son of the late Vakeel; while another party proclaimed Zikea Khan, also related to the Vakeel, and a person of great wealth and influence. Each of these and many others obtained the government for a short space of time; and at length two powerful competitors, Aga Mohammed and Jaafar Khan, fought a terrible battle, 1788, at Yezdekhasht, in which the former gained the advantage, but was soon

after driven out by Luft Ali Khan, of the Zend tribe, and a relative of the late Vakeel, 1789. This chieftain contrived to keep the throne, though with difficulty, for six years, when he fell by the hands of assassins, and Aga Mohammed was unanimously received as shah, 1795. He was of the Kajar tribe, and by his activity and severity put an end to anarchy. Having seen tranquillity restored to the various provinces, he commenced a war with Russia for the recovery of Georgia; but while in that expedition, two of his menial attendants whom he had threatened with punishment, murdered him, 1797. He was succeeded by his nephew, Futteh Ali Khan; and during that shah's long reign of thirty-seven years, Russia dispossessed Persia of all her northern provinces between the Euxine and Caspian seas. The peace of Turkmanschai, 1828, left Russia the dictator of Teheran; nevertheless, Futteh did every thing in his power to suppress the Muscovite influence, and in the poetic and figurative language of his country, used to exclaim, 'The horses of the Irànîs can go where the horses of their ancestors went; but if we make wide roads, the wheels of the infidels will speedily begin to roll, and to traverse them.' This was his argument for keeping up the ancient warlike habits of his race, and for preferring the use of the saddle to the modern luxury of a carriage. Futteh Ali died 1834; and a terrible conflict ensued respecting the succession.

KAUBUL UNDER TIMUR KHAN, &c.—TIMUR succeeded his father, Ahmed, founder of the state, 1773, having full sway, at his accession, over Kaubul Proper, Balkh part of Khorasan, Beluchistan, Scinde, and the Punjaub. His reign of twenty years was tolerably peaceful for that of an oriental prince; but he lost Scinde, and left the country at his decease in 1793, in a fearful state of division. His eldest son Humaiun ought to have been his successor, little as strict hereditary right is acknowledged in

the East; but the Barukzye tribe compelled the people to receive Timur's second son, ZEMAUN, as shah, who proved a weak and cruel ruler. His reign of seven years was marked by the extraordinary scheme he had planned for the invasion of India. By his trifling force, the Mahrattas and British were to be subdued; and his family was to recover that ascendancy in the country of the Monguls, which had been held by his grandfather. An extravagant expedition to carry out his views was prevented, 1799, by the insurrection of Poyndar Khan, son of Hadjee Jumal, noticed in the preceding reign of Ahmed; which Poyndar now assumed the title of Sirafras Khan. Poyndar was head of the Barukzyes when they placed Zemaun on the throne; but the shah seized him and put him to death, and thus established a blood-feud which still exists between the two chief tribes of Barukzyes and Duranis. In 1800, Zemaun's own half-brother, MAHMUD, rose against, and not only deposed, but blinded him; being aided in his revolt by Futtch Khan, son of the executed Sirafras. Mahmud, however, soon disgusted the Afghans by his tyranny; and the north-eastern tribe of Ghilzies succeeded in expelling him, 1803, and placed SHUJAH-OL-MULK, uterine brother of Shah Zemaun, on the throne. The new sovereign began his reign with great wisdom; but he had much to contend with. The fraternal disputes that had taken place, had given strength to the tribal system again, whose feudal authority had been almost annihilated by the introduction of monarchy; and Shah Shujah found it impossible to unite the clans against the numerous enemies that he saw rising against the Afghan power. The Sikhs seized the Punjaub (or country of five rivers), Beluchistan threw off the Kaulbul yoke, and Persia got back the portion of Khorasan which Ahmed had taken from her; so that the new shah, in a few years after his accession, saw the state peeled down to

a district, which was bounded on the north by Bukhara, west by Persia, south by Beluchistan and Scinde, and east by the Indus—being scarcely a third of the territory left by the founder, Ahmed. The conspiracies of the tribes at length became so formidable, that Futtch Khan, now chief of the Barukzyes, and brother of the subsequently celebrated Dost Mohammed Khan, on being refused office by Shah Shujah, organized a rising at his castle of Ghiriskh, drove out the shah, and restored MAHMUD to the throne as nominal sovereign, 1809; himself acting as visir with real power. Futtch, however, had some difficulty in maintaining his post. The Sikhs, who had already obtained the Punjaub, threatened to cross the Indus, and seize Attock; and, on the other side, Persia was planning a march across the western boundary, to take Herat. Attock actually fell to Runjeet Singh; but Futtch's rapid advance upon Herat prevented the success of the Persian arms. The visir, while at Herat, grossly insulted prince Ferüz, the brother of Shah Mahmud, its governor; and as the ambitious minister had previously shown his contempt for prince Kamran, Mamud's son, the heir-apparent, Ferüz and Kamran united their prayers to the shah that the visir might be removed. They even laid hands on Futtch, and blinded him, and eventually had him assassinated—an act which confirmed the Barukzyes blood-enemies of the Durani house. Dost Mohammed, second surviving brother of Futtch, now roused his eighteen remaining brothers to join in avenging the visir's murder; the provinces were soon in arms; and Mahmud, hastily abdicating, fled with the crown jewels and his other treasures to Herat, 1818, a place which had been his residence when governor of Khorasan, under his father Timur. Having at once acknowledged himself a vassal of Persia, he was allowed to keep rule in the district of Herat until his decease in 1829; when his son Kamran was

in like manner, permitted to bear the title of khan of Herat. (See *Foundation of Herat*.)

THE SIKH MONARCHY ESTABLISHED.—The Afghans of Kaubul had so harassed the Sikhs (after the establishment of the Afghan power in Persia), that they retired for the most part from their settlements in the plains, to the mountains of North India, the former seat of the Afghans themselves. At length, however, a youth of the warlike sect, named Runjeet, contrived to perform some signal service for Zemaun, shah of Kaubul; whereon he was invested, though only sixteen years old, with the government of Lahore, as viceroi, 1798. In 1800, Runjeet had so well laid his plans, that he assembled all the Sikhs, and declared himself not only their king, but independent amir of Lahore, to the general satisfaction. He thereupon abolished the division into tribes, and from year to year, in spite of the jealousy of the Afghans, saw his new state rapidly increase in power. With the favourite eastern style of Singh, or 'The Lion,' Runjeet took advantage of the disturbances of Kaubul, and over-ran the country. On the dethronement of Shah Shūjah, 1809, he received that Afghan monarch, and gave him a residence at Lahore; and he by no means forgot to deprive him of his well-known extraordinary horde of jewels. It was in 1813, that Runjeet was resolved to force from the ex-shah his magnificent diamond, called Kohinur, 'the mountain of light,' which Nadir Shah had abstracted from the peacock-throne of Delhi; and the 'Lions' character, more unscrupulous than cruel, was curiously displayed in the measures he adopted to possess himself of the highly coveted prize. The exiled family was deprived of all nourishment during two days; but when their firmness was found proof against hunger, food was supplied. It was in vain that Shah Shūjah denied the diamond to be in his possession: and having exhausted re-

monstrance, he resorted to artifice and delay. Runjeet, however, was neither to be deceived, nor diverted from his purpose; and at length the shah, seeing that nothing else would satisfy the rapacity of the Sikh, agreed to give up the jewel. Accordingly, on the 1st of June, 1813, the Maharajah waited on the shah for the purpose of the surrender. He was received with great dignity by the ex-monarch; and both being seated, there was a solemn silence, which lasted for nearly an hour! Runjeet then grew impatient, and whispered an attendant to remind the shah of the object of their meeting. No answer was returned; but the shah made a signal with his eyes to an eunuch, who retired, and brought in a small roll, which he placed on the carpet, at equal distances between the two chiefs. Runjeet ordered the roll to be unfolded, and the diamond was exhibited to his sight. He recognized, seized it, and, without any ceremony, immediately retired. The jewel in question is of the finest water, half the size of a hen's egg, and is calculated by Jewish lapidaries as being worth $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling. Runjeet afterwards contrived to abstract the Punjaub, and the romantic vale of Cachemire (the last in 1819) from Kaubul, having just before added Multan to his state. In 1823, the decisive battle of Nushero on the north side of the Kaubul river, secured his power from that stream to Peshawur, the modern capital of the then reduced Afghanistan, which, under Dost Mohammed, agreed to pay an annual tribute to the conqueror. In 1839, when the British had resolved on the restoration of Shah Shūjah of Kaubul, in order to which Dost Mohammed was to be dethroned, Runjeet became their ally, having forgotten perhaps, after the lapse of years, how grievously he had despoiled the Afghans, (the enemies of his faith,) and especially Shah Shūjah himself, of both territories and jewels. Illness, however, seized 'the lion,' on the march from Lahore to Ghuzni,

and death ensued, July, 1839; when the throne he had founded passed to his son, Kurruck Singh.

One of the singularities of Runjeet was his formation of a regiment of Amazons, 150 in number, selected from the prettiest girls of Cachemire, Persia, and the Punjaub. They were magnificently dressed, armed with bows and arrows, and used frequently to appear on horseback as cavalry, for the amusement of 'the maharajah.' They not only received handsome pay from Runjeet, but were rewarded by him for any trifling service, with grants of whole villages; and five of them sacrificed themselves, together with his four wives, in suttee, on occasion of his decease. Runjeet Singh was one of the wealthiest eastern sovereigns of whom we have any record, as respects jewels; it being the barbaric custom to preserve property in that concentrated form, in case of a sudden reverse of fortune. The *Kohinur*, perhaps the largest diamond in the world, was worn by him in an armlet, with a diamond on either side of the size of a sparrow's egg. He had also a ruby of extraordinary weight, having the names of Aurungzeb, Ahmed Shah, and other rulers, engraven on it; and a topaz, for which he gave 20,000 rupees, as large as half a billiard ball. All these he left by will to the various temples of his sect: and the *kohinur* at the present hour forms the eye of the hideous idol in the Sikh fane at Orissu.

The following account of an interview with Runjeet will be read with interest; it is the authentic narrative of a British officer, high in command in India. 'He had a fancy for gardens, of which he possessed many all round Lahore; in each was a small single-roomed villa, with a verandah all round, and on the flat roofs of these he often reared a small tent, in which he slept. His habit was to gallop from one to the other of these (some few miles apart) in the cool season, suddenly ordering the light camp-equipage (always ready) to follow him, sometimes appointing his

court to meet him. The day I speak of, he was girt with his whole court. We approached the garden he occupied through two lines of his favourite mounted regiment of *suwaur*s, whom he called his 'immortals.' Their uniform is a tunic of yellow silk, quilted; the legs are clad in tight scarlet silk trousers, and on the head is a light steel helmet, round which twists a red silk turban; and if all that glitters about them is not gold, it still shines very brightly. A shield of tough bull-hide, with bright steel bosses was slung behind each horseman's back; and their picturesque arms were the curved scimitar, spear, or matchlock. We next passed between rows of his chosen infantry, and so approached the terrace, where, surrounded by his satraps, sat the maharajah. A sight more gorgeous than this court circle, or more simple than the monarch's own appearance, could not be imagined. The Sikhs are a very handsome race: Dhian Singh, the prime minister, and Suchait Singh, brothers, were clad most sumptuously; the former, under a panoply of polished steel plate armour, an Asiatic Mars, moved as lightly as if clad in silk alone; the latter, taller, and of a softer cast of beauty, was rustling in keencaub and silk, and was one blaze of jewels. The other sirdars (chiefs) were splendidly dressed also; and when the eye fell from this glittering circle, it rested upon the figure of a little old man, really not much taller than a dwarf, seated on a low plain chair, and habited in a plain green Cachemire suit, of the commonest material. On his head was a turban like a night-cap; and a long gray beard (where all the rest were black by nature or art) hung down upon his breast in uncared-for raggedness. This was the mighty Runjeet Singh—the wisest, bravest, most powerful, and richest of Asiatic princes. At his feet two little boys, of about four years old, were rolling about in childish glee, being the sons of two favourite chiefs slain by his side in battle, and he had adopted

their offspring. Tame pigeons were hovering over the maharajah's head, and deriving from his hands their accustomed food. His chair was half hidden by the flowers it stood amongst; and his favourite horses were being led past by grooms for his inspection.

SPAIN UNDER CHARLES IV.—This prince succeeded his father, Charles III., 1788, and regarded with the same anxiety as his predecessor had done, the situation of French affairs. In every way he laboured to prevent the spread of republican principles in the peninsula; and upon the murder of Louis XVI., he commenced war with the revolutionary government. The Spanish arms, however, were constantly unsuccessful; and when St. Sebastian, and the fort of Bellegarde, followed by Bilbao, had fallen, the affrighted king made an alliance with his enemies, 1795. Being now entirely under the dominion of France, Charles commenced war with England, but soon saw his fleet beaten off Cape St. Vincent, by Sir John Jervis. The chief minister of Charles was Manuel Godoy, who, from being an obscure garde-du-corps, was in one year, 1792, made a lieutenant-general, an admiral, a duke, and a knight of the Golden Fleece. He married the king's own niece, and was created Prince of the Peace. Through his influence with the queen, who might be said to rule the whole nation with Godoy, Charles was induced to treat his own son, the prince of Asturias, as a weakly youth, and unfit to succeed to the throne; and that infante (afterwards Ferdinand VII.) was accordingly kept in a state of strict seclusion. The prince of Asturias, however, was the favourite of the people; and when, in 1807, the Spaniards reflected upon the destruction of their navy, through Godoy's attachment to France; upon the loss of their North American settlements, which had been bestowed on that treacherous power for its protection; and upon the probable secession of their South American colonies, then in a state of insurrec-

tion,—they resolved on crushing, if possible, the power of the minister. Prince Ferdinand, urged by injudicious friends, hereupon secretly addressed a letter to Napoleon, complaining of his family's and country's distresses, which he affirmed to arise from the thralldom in which both were held by Godoy, requesting his aid to displace the favourite, and putting himself under the emperor's protection. Godoy, being apprized of the affair, hastened to king Charles, and having assured him that his son Ferdinand was conspiring both against his crown, and his life, had him seized, and placed in close confinement. Napoleon, however, lost no time in sending troops into the peninsula under the pretence of marching against Portugal; and when he had surprised, and taken several Spanish fortresses, the court, in alarm, resolved on retiring to the colony of Mexico. March 17th, 1808, was fixed for the departure; and the carriages having drawn up at the palace at ten at night, a mutiny commenced against the soldiery, Godoy was sought for and ultimately apprehended, and the spirited conduct of the brothers, Ferdinand and Carlos, alone saved that minister's life, little as he expected protection at their hands. The retreat was now abandoned; and Charles, observing the popularity of his son, abdicated in his favour, and on the 19th of March the latter assumed the title of Ferdinand VII. This arrangement, however, did not suit Napoleon, who contrived, under specious pretexts, to draw father and son to Bayonne, and obliged both to resign the Spanish crown in his favour. Ferdinand and his brother, Don Carlos, were conveyed in honourable custody to Talleyrand's seat at Valençay; where they remained till Napoleon, induced by his reverses in Spain and Germany, restored the former to his throne, 1814, with the proviso that he should drive the English from the peninsula. King Charles IV. died at Rome, 1819.

FALL OF VENICE UNDER THE DOGE MANINI.—Three inquisitors had been

placed in the room of the doge Mocenigo, 1776, the Venetians being very generally tinctured with republican notions ; at all events they had become strongly opposed to the aristocratical form which had for ages prevailed. Nevertheless, by the yet great influence of the oligarchy, the usual government had been restored, 1779; when PAOLO RENIERI was elected doge, and ruled the state until his decease in 1789, in which year a dreadful fire destroyed a large portion of the city of Venice. LUIGI MANINI was then chosen doge : and upon the coincident breaking out of the French revolution, Venice joined the other states of Italy, to oppose the progress of the republican leaders. The city of the oligarchy, however, was at length occupied by the French, 1797 ; and the wedding of the Adriatic was omitted that year, by the doge's command, for the first time since the institution of the magnificent ceremonial by Ziani, 1177. A tumult having taken place in the city soon after the occupation, wherein several French soldiers were killed, the main republican army on its return from Vienna, deposed the doge, dissolved the oligarchy, and, to the great joy of a very increased populace, constituted Venice a republic. Some intention was then expressed by the invaders to annex the state to the new Cisalpine republic, as a French province ; but the treaty between the French and the emperor of Germany not being yet signed, on account of the former having refused to restore Mantua, as it was stipulated they should do in the preliminaries, they ceded Venice to Germany, in lieu of Mantua. Thus, in the year 1797, was 'the city of the seventy isles,' whose terrible, yet often romantic history takes so prominent a place in European annals, humbled for ever, by a power which had for centuries been proud of her alliance ; and she now simply figures as a common seaport of the Austrian Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.

IRELAND UNDER GEORGE III., FROM

1789 TO THE UNION, 1801.—We have stated that Ireland was in a condition little above anarchy when the French revolution began, 1789. It was not, therefore, matter of surprise to Great Britain, that an explosion which shook all Europe, should be very seriously felt by her ever-effervescent sister. The first token of rebellion in France was the signal for revolt to the discontented, the unprincipled, and the profligate of all nations. In England, French innovating opinions spread with rapidity, and their progress at one time was most alarming ; but the firmness of the executive government, supported by the good sense of the nation, prevented any actual outbreak. In Ireland those destructive principles took an immediate hold ; and the people were urged forward to the last stage of crime. A conspiracy was entered upon to separate the territory from Great Britain, and to establish a republic, after effecting the ruin of all religious establishments. The most active engine of this treasonable combination was the Society of United Irishmen, established 1791. The subject of parliamentary reform was a cover to its real designs ; but it circulated writings of a flagitious tendency with perseverance ; and, the lower classes were trained by it to be instruments of the most diabolical barbarity. The soldier was incited to betray his king, the tenant his landlord, the servant his master. In the issue, magistrates, witnesses, jurors, all who ventured to support the laws, were marked for destruction ; and assassins, sparing neither sex nor age, spread everywhere terror and dismay. In the summer of 1796, a direct communication with the enemy was opened by the heads of the conspiracy ; and French assistance was promised speedily to be sent in aid of the disaffected, whose number in Ulster alone was 100,000. An agent was soon after despatched to the French Directory (lord Fitzgerald), who, accompanied by Mr. O'Connor, had an interview with

general Hoche ; and in this conference every thing was settled respecting an invasion.

Accordingly, in December, 1796, the French fleet took advantage of a thick fog, and escaping from Brest, unobserved by admiral Colpoys, anchored in Bantry Bay. The appearance of this armament excited a considerable degree of alarm, since the Union Society had not extended its influence so far ; so that the demonstrations given of an ardour to oppose the enemy wherever a descent should be attempted, induced the invading ships to retire. During 1797, extensive preparations were made, both at the Texel and Brest, for a second attempt ; but the enemy's designs were again frustrated by the victory of lord Duncan over the Dutch fleet, in October. In the mean time, vigorous measures were pursued against the conspirators. The insurrection-act was passed, by which the lord-lieutenant of Ireland was enabled to proclaim any county in a state of disturbance, and to treat it accordingly ; while the habeas corpus-act was suspended, and the yeomanry established. Notwithstanding these efforts of the law, many parts of Leinster and Munster were in the possession of a complete banditti early in 1798 ; and no night passed without the commission of numerous murders. The arrest of the Leinster committee, however, on the 12th of March, with several leading members of the Union, tended so much to harass the designs of the conspirators, that a plan was digested by their military committee for a general rising on the 23rd of May. The government being perfectly informed of the plot, several of the leaders were apprehended on the 21st. Nevertheless, the insurrection took place on the night appointed. The rebels first attacked the town of Naas, but were repulsed by the Armagh militia ; and in several other engagements they were in like manner defeated. Their principal strength seeming to be collected in Wexford, a vigorous attack

was made upon that county by generals Lake and Moore ; and such was the activity and energy of the officers and soldiers, that tranquillity began gradually to be restored. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, a son of the first duke of Leinster, the chief leader of the insurgents, was arrested in Dublin ; and being severely wounded in the struggle with the magistrates, he died a few days after in prison, June 4th. About the end of August, some frigates from France appeared in Kilala bay, and landed about 1000 men, with arms and ammunition ; but the invaders, on being attacked by general Lake, surrendered at discretion. Another French expedition was intercepted by the squadron under sir John Warren, and captured. This last occurrence put an end to French hopes ; and though banditti continued for some time to infest the country, they were, by the vigilance and activity of the king's troops, pursued to their lurking-places, and destroyed.

The union of Ireland with Great Britain seemed now the only thing wanting to her security. The subject was laid before the British parliament by Mr. Pitt ; and after undergoing an ample discussion, it received the approbation of a great majority in both houses. When the subject came to be considered in the Irish parliament, the same intemperate violence which had characterized its debates on former occasions was manifested : in a word, dazzled and bewildered by a phantom which they called Independence, the members were incapable of canvassing a subject of such magnitude, in all its bearings. When two countries exist as separate nations under the same sovereign, the question respecting the expediency of a legislative union, abstractedly considered, seems to be attended with no difficulties. Among the important benefits that may naturally be expected to flow from such a junction, may be reckoned an increase of energy, a consolidation of resources, a coincidence of views and interests,

and the gradual decay of national distinctions, by which animosities are fomented. In the case of Great Britain and Ireland, the situation of both had rendered such a measure necessary for their mutual prosperity; and France, without it, would certainly have added Ireland to her dominions. Notwithstanding the inflammatory harangues of the democratic party, and the opposition of Mr. Grattan, the Irish parliament at length agreed upon a bill, which, after vast opposition, finally passed both houses, April 1800; and a similar bill having been brought into the British parliament by Mr. Pitt and lord Grenville, both received the royal assent. It was hereby determined that from the 1st of January, 1801, there should be but one imperial parliament for the British islands; wherein Ireland should be represented at Westminster by four spiritual peers taken in rotation every session, twenty-eight temporal peers chosen by the Irish prelates and peers for life, and 100 commoners (since increased to 105), elected in the usual manner. By the act of union, the Irish are admitted to a share of all the trade of Great Britain, except such as is confined to chartered companies, and is of course not free to the inhabitants of Britain at large. Ireland still retains her own laws and courts of justice, together with her court of chancery; and her majesty is represented in Dublin by a lieutenant, as when the two islands were two kingdoms. Ireland is likewise exempted from all concern with the debt of Great Britain contracted before the Union; in which respect the terms granted to her are preferable to those which had been granted by England to Scotland; and her contribution to the imperial expenses is but as one to seven-and-a-half.

THE LORDS LIEUTENANT of Ireland, from the first, in 1361, to the present day, have been as follows:—1361, Lionel, earl of Ulster; 1379, Edmund Mortimer, earl of March; 1382, Philip Courteney, lord Birm-

ingham, general; 1384, Robert De Vere, earl of Oxford; 1394, king Richard II., in person; 1395, Roger Mortimer, earl of March and Ulster; 1399, king Richard II., in person (second time); 1401, Thomas, earl of Lancaster; 1410, John, duke of Bedford; 1413, Edward, earl of March; 1414, sir John Talbot; 1416, Thomas, earl of Lancaster; 1427, sir John de Grey; 1428, sir J. Sutton, lord Dudley; 1432, sir Thomas Stanley; 1438, Lion, lord Wells; 1440, James, earl of Ormond; 1446, J., earl of Shrewsbury; 1449, Richard, duke of York; 1461, George, duke of Clarence, for life; 1479, Richard, duke of York; 1483, prince Edward, son to Richard III.; 1485, John de la Pole, earl of Lincoln; 1490, Jasper, duke of Bedford; 1496, Gerald, earl of Kildare, and in 1504; 1501, Henry, duke of York, afterwards Henry VIII.; 1504, Gerald, earl of Kildare; 1520, Thomas Howard, earl of Surrey; 1530, Henry, duke of Richmond; 1558, Thomas, earl of Sussex; 1598, Robert, earl of Essex; 1599, sir Charles Blunt, lord Mountjoy; 1639, Thomas, lord viscount Wentworth, earl of Strafford; 1643, James, marquis of Ormond; 1649, Oliver Cromwell; 1660, James Butler, duke, marquis, and earl of Ormond; 1669, John Roberts, lord Roberts; 1670, J. Berkeley, lord Berkeley; 1672, Arthur Capel, earl of Essex; 1677, James Butler, duke of Ormond; 1685, Henry Hyde, earl of Clarendon; 1686, Richard Talbot, earl of Tyrconnell; 1690, Henry Sidney, lord Sidney; 1695, Henry Capel, lord Capel; 1701, Lau. Hyde, earl of Rochester; 1703, James Butler, duke of Ormond, and in 1711; 1707, Thomas Herbert, earl of Pembroke; 1709, Thomas Wharton, earl of Wharton; 1711, July 3, James, duke of Ormond; 1713, Oct. 27, Charles, duke of Shrewsbury; 1717, Aug. 7, Charles, duke of Bolton, 1721, Aug. 28, Charles, duke of Grafton; 1724, Oct. 22, John, lord Carteret; 1731, Sept. 11, Lionel, duke of Dorset, and again,

September 19, 1751; 1737, Sept. 7, William, duke of Devonshire; 1745, Aug. 31, Philip, earl of Chesterfield; 1747, Sept. 13, William, earl of Harrington; 1751, Sept. 19, Lionel, duke of Dorset; 1755, May 5, William, marquis of Hartington; 1757, Sept. 25, John, duke of Bedford; 1761, Oct. 6, George, earl of Halifax; 1763, Sept. 22, Hugh, duke of Northumberland; 1765, Oct. 18, Francis, earl of Hertford; 1767, Oct. 14, George, viscount Townsend; 1772, Nov. 30, Simon, earl Harcourt; 1777, Jan. 25, John, earl of Buckinghamshire; 1780, Dec. 23, Frederick, earl of Carlisle; 1782, April 14, William Henry, duke of Portland; 1782, Sept. 15, George, earl Temple, and again, December 16, 1787, as marquis of Buckingham; 1783, June 3, Robert, earl of Northington; 1784, Feb. 24, Charles, duke of Rutland, who died 24th Oct. 1787; 1787, Dec. 16, George, marquis of Buckingham;

1790, Jan. 5, John, earl of Westmoreland; 1795, Jan. 4, William, earl of Fitzwilliam; 1795, March 31, John, earl Camden; 1798, June 20, Charles, marquis Cornwallis; 1801, May 25, Philip, earl of Hardwicke; 1806, March 18, John, duke of Bedford; 1807, April 19, Charles, duke of Richmond; 1813, Aug. 26, Charles, earl Whitworth; 1817, Oct. 9, Charles, earl Talbot; 1821, Dec. 29, Richard, marquis Wellesley, and again, Sept. 26, 1833; 1828, March 1, Henry, marquis of Anglesey, and again, Dec. 23, 1830; 1829, March 6, Hugh, duke of Northumberland; 1830, Dec. 23, Henry, marquis of Anglesey; 1833, Sept. 26, Richard, marquis Wellesley; 1834, Dec. 29, Thomas, earl of Haddington; 1835, April 23, Henry Constantine, earl of Mulgrave; 1839, April 3, Hugh, viscount Ebrington; 1841, Sept. 15, Thomas Philip, earl de Grey.

CHIEF BATTLES.

LORD HOWE'S VICTORY, 1794, happened on the 1st of June, in the Atlantic ocean, 1000 miles from the coast of France; and it was the first of that series of triumphs which eventually extinguished the French navy, in the war of the revolution. Villaret-Joyeuse was the French admiral.

NILE, 1798, gained by the immortal Nelson over the French fleet under admiral Brueys, in Aboukir bay.

SERINGAPATAM, 1799.—This capital of the Mysore country, in Hindustan, was taken by general Harris, and the body of Tippu Sultaun was found under heaps of slain at one of the gates.

MARENGO in Italy, 1800, between Napoleon, and the Austrians under Melas; in which the latter were defeated, with the loss of 15,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

ASSAYE, 1803.—On August 29, 1803, general Wellesley, having received intelligence that Scindiah and the rajah of Berah were marching upon Hyderabad, the Nizam's capital moved forward to the left bank of

the Godavery, so as to come between the approaching enemy and Hyderabad. The confederates, finding themselves thus baffled, retraced their steps to Jalnapoor; and continued retreating, in order to augment their force, until they reached the banks of the Kaitna and Juah, along which they encamped. Here the general resolved to attack them, though their army amounted to 40,000 men, and his own did not not exceed 5000, of which only 2000 were Europeans. Having made the fortified village of Assaye his head-quarters, the general crossed the Kaitna at a ford near the village of Pepulgaon; upon which the enemy opened upon his troops a cannonade that did terrible execution. As the British guns could not reach the foe in return, the general ordered the artillery to be left behind, and the whole line to move on. This was the critical moment: the stoutest heart must have felt the greatest anxiety at seeing so small a force advancing to the charge against an army eight times their number, in a

strong position, and protected by more than 100 pieces of cannon, all served by French officers and engineers. The enemy, however, were soon compelled to fall somewhat back; and though the ranks of the 74th were in a few minutes so thinned by the cannonade, that a body of Scindiah's cavalry was encouraged to charge it, the horsemen were charged in turn by the British cavalry, and driven with great slaughter into the Juah. At length the enemy's line, overawed by the steady advance of the British, gave way in every direction; and the general's cavalry, which had crossed to the northward of the Juah, cut in among their broken infantry, and charged the fugitives along the banks with the greatest effect. The smallness of his force did not permit general Wellesley to secure all the advantages he had gained; and even while his troops were pursuing the fugitives, a considerable number of the enemy, who had, after Falstaff's method, thrown themselves on the ground, as if slain, suddenly rose up, and seizing the guns that had been left in the rear by the British, began to open upon them a fierce and destructive cannonade. Their cavalry also, which had been constantly hovering round the British troops without coming to action, still continued near general Wellesley's line. The battle, therefore, commenced afresh; and the general, seeing his own imminent danger, charged the party which had seized the guns, and, after a warm contest, in which a horse was shot under him, routed, and put it to flight. At the same time colonel Maxwell, at the head of the English cavalry, charged a body of the enemy's infantry which had formed again, and compelled it to give way. This decided the victory; and the enemy's army, cavalry and all, retired precipitately, leaving 1200 dead on the field, and the whole country covered with their wounded, and in the possession of the British. Seven standards, 98 pieces of can-

non, the camp equipage of Scindiah, bullocks, camels, military stores, and ammunition in abundance, fell into the hands of the victors. The loss of the British in officers and men was 2237 killed, wounded, and missing. As a mark of the public approval of the conduct of general Wellesley and his brave troops, the governor-general of India directed that the names of the officers and men who had fallen in the battle should be recorded, together with the circumstances of the action, upon a public monument, to be erected at Calcutta in perpetual remembrance of the glorious victory.

AUSTERLITZ, in Moravia, 1805, gained by Napoleon against the emperors of Austria and Russia in person; a contest as sanguinary as any in the annals of civilized nations. The league which had been formed to check the ambitious progress of the 'Modern Charlemagne' was thus effectually dissolved. During this battle, one of Napoleon's light infantry was discovered to be a female, Maria Schellenck; who, concealing her sex, had entered the French army, 1792, and received six wounds at the battle of Jemappes. A severe sabre-cut in the thigh occasioned the denouement; but when cured, she resolved, and was permitted, to follow the regiment, and at last was placed by the emperor as tenth on the list of lieutenants, and invested by his own hands with the cross of the legion of honour. She retired with a pension, 1807, and died at Menin, 1840.

TRAFALGAR, 1805. — This was fought off the Cape of that name in Spain, when the gallant Nelson totally defeated the combined fleets of France and Spain, under the command of admiral Villeneuve, who, with two Spanish admirals, was made prisoner. So great a victory, however, was purchased at the price of the illustrious Nelson's life.

JENA (pronounced as Yaynah), 1806, between Napoleon and the king of Prussia; wherein the latter was

defeated, and his general, the duke of Brunswick, mortally wounded. The duke implored of the conqueror that he might die in Brunswick; but his request was treated with scorn, a circumstance which led to the devoted hostility of his son, the duke of Brunswick-Oëls, to the person of the French usurper.

MAIDA, 1806, gained by general sir John Stuart and the English over double the number of French, commanded by general Regnier, in Calabria, South Italy.

FRIEDLAND, 1807.—Buonaparte in this (in Prussia) defeated the Russians with great slaughter, and the peace of Tilsit was the result.

CORUNNA, 1809, gained by the excellent general sir John Moore, though at the expense of his own valuable life, while retreating to his ships before the French.

LEIPSIC, 1813, fought by Napoleon against the allied armies of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, the French having 180,000, and the allies 300,000. The fact is, that the Germans rose *en masse* on this occasion, to shake off the yoke of the modern Charlemagne; and, under such circumstances, few nations have ever succumbed even to a foe incomparably superior in number. The emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and Bernadotte, since king of Sweden, entered the city, when victory had determined for them, by three different gates, after occasioning a loss to the French of 80,000 men, and 150 pieces of cannon. The issue was the freedom of Germany, and the march of the allies to dethrone Napoleon.

WATERLOO, 1815.—Of this important conflict, which closed the war of the French Revolution, we have laboured to frame an accurate, though somewhat lengthened, account.

The duke of Wellington reached Brussels from Vienna on the 5th of April, 1815, and found Kleist in command of the Prussian force. Kleist was disposed to retire, in case of being attacked, behind Brussels, a plan which the duke warmly opposed; his

own views, based as much on political as military considerations, being in favour of a position in advance of that city. The duke purposed taking the initiative in the contest at the beginning of May; but on finding Napoleon's state of preparation, he abandoned the project—his own force being so unequal, and the mutinous state of the Saxon troops making such a course hazardous in the extreme. The British *materiel*, also, was scantily supplied from Woolwich; and as respects horses, drivers, pontoons, heavy artillery, &c., the duke's difficulties were equally embarrassing. Napoleon was therefore left, of necessity, to take the game into his own hands; and he played it, in the first instance at least, with a skill and energy worthy of his best days and reputation. It is probable that no extensive military operation was ever conducted to its issue, whatever that issue might be, without many derangements of the original conceptions of its leaders, arising from the casualties of the busy moment, the failure of despatches, the misconstruction of orders, the misdirection of columns, &c. The operations now in question were certainly no exception to this rule on either side. As to Napoleon, if his own account of them be believed, few commanders in critical circumstances have been worse seconded, as far as prompt obedience and punctuality were concerned; while, on the other hand, if Ney and Grouchy are to be credited in their defence, no subordinates ever suffered more from tardy and contradictory orders on the part of their chief. As to the English, they were not exempt from accident; and that the fate of the contest of Ligny, on the 16th of June, was seriously influenced by the absence of Bulow's corps, the fourth, is known to every one. In Plott's very circumstantial account, we find the fact mentioned, that orders were forwarded to Bulow from Sombref, on the 15th, which were expected to secure his junction for the next day.

The despatch was sent to Hannut, where it was presumed that it would find his head-quarters established. These were still, however, at Liège; and the despatch appearing to be of no consequence, *unwichtig scheinend*, lay at Hannut unopened, and was found there by Bulow, only on his arrival at ten o'clock the next morning.

Whatever the defects of Blucher's cavalry and artillery at Ligny, and whatever the merits of the general's position, it is clear that Napoleon was tasked to the utmost to wrest it before nightfall from the old warrior who held it. The spot had been visited shortly before the commencement of the action by the duke of Wellington; on which occasion the two generals concerted in person their future measures for mutual co-operation, in whatever manner the first collision might end. We believe it to be the opinion of most English officers acquainted with the ground at Ligny, that the duke under similar circumstances, would have defended it in a different manner from that adopted by the Prussians, for that the locality admitted of a disposition which would have less exposed the masses not immediately engaged, to the murderous fire of the French artillery; but it is alleged that the course had been adopted from knowledge and experience of the habits and *morale* of the Prussian troops, who cannot think of fighting unless they see their enemy.

Napoleon's first attack was made on the 15th; and it was upon the Russian outposts at Thuin. The prince of Orange was the earliest to bring the duke of Wellington the intelligence; and he found his grace at dinner at his hotel (then three o'clock) at Brussels, about a hundred yards from his quarters in the park, which he had taken care not to quit during the morning, nor even on the preceding day. Orders were accordingly despatched at five o'clock for the movement of the British army to the left; and these reached most of the

corps by eight, and probably all by ten o'clock P.M. This will at once show that the assertion of the numerous 'Waterloo chroniclers' regarding the duke's having been surprised by Napoleon's sudden proximity, has no foundation in truth. The circumstance of many of the British officers being engaged at a ball at Brussels, on the evening of the 15th, has been one of the arguments brought to support this erroneous view of the matter; but an attention to the following statement, and to the memoir of the duke of Brunswick, will enable the reader to banish such a prejudice from his mind.

When the duke of Wellington had been summoned from Vienna to take the command in the Netherlands, the armies of our continental allies were distributed in different parts of Europe; while the greater part of that of England had been detached to North America, and, though peace had been concluded with the United States, had not yet returned. On his arrival from Elba, Buonaparte had found a French army in France, completely organized, consisting of 250,000 men, with cannon and all requisites, and capable of increase from a number of old soldiers and returned prisoners dispersed through the country. It is obvious that, under such circumstances, the first measures which the generals of the allied armies could take must be defensive. The armies in the Belgian provinces, and on the left bank of the Rhine, must have been strictly directed on this principle. They were at the outposts; and it was their office to protect the march of the other armies of the allies to the intended basis of combined operations. Each of these armies, indeed, had particular interests to attend to, besides those which were common to all; but the peculiar objects intrusted to the British, were of supreme and paramount importance. The force under the duke's command, consisting of British, Dutch, and Hanoverians, had to preserve its communi-

cations with England, Holland, and Germany, to maintain its connexion with the Prussian army, and to protect Brussels, the seat of government of the Netherlands. Napoleon had great advantages, whether for offensive or defensive operations, in the number, position, and strength, of the fortresses on the north-east frontier of France. These enabled him to organize his forces, and arrange their movements, beyond the power of detection on the part of the allies, even to the last moment. They put it out of the power of the allies to undertake any offensive operation which should not include the means of carrying on one or more sieges, possibly at the same time. The country occupied by the duke and his allies was comparatively open, for the ancient strongholds of Flanders had been found in very bad condition; and though his measures were as active as judicious to put them in a state of defence, no activity could repair their deficiencies in a very brief space of time. No general ever occupied a defensive position of greater difficulty and inconvenience; and the uncertainty of the length of time during which it was to be so occupied, was an aggravation of that difficulty. It is clear, from numerous passages in colonel Gurwood's twelfth volume, that the duke could do nothing to terminate that period, till the other armies of the allied powers should have entered on the basis of combined operations. The duke could only occupy himself, as he did, in strengthening his position by pushing on the works of Charleroi, Namur, Mons, Ath, Tournay, Ypres, Oudenarde, Courtray, Menin, Ostend, Nieuport, and Antwerp. Reports of an intended attack by Napoleon had been frequent before June; and, previously to the 15th of that month, it was known at Brussels, that Buonaparte had left Paris to take the command on the northern frontier. This certainty, however, could make no immediate change in the position of the allied armies: it could not invest

them with the power of taking the initiative. All the usual precautions for the forwarding of orders to the troops in their respective cantonments had been already adopted; but any decisive drawing together of the forces, founded on any hypothesis which could as yet be formed, might have been destructive to some one or other of the interests which it was the business of the duke to preserve inviolate. His grace, therefore, was as watchful to know his enemy's movements as all these circumstances could make a general; and he was no more surprised by the opening attack of the 15th, than he was at finding his own dinner ready in the park, at three o'clock on that day.

We must be brief with the proceedings from the first assault at Thuin on the said 15th, to the close of the 17th of June. That onset of the French led, on the 16th, to the grand attack upon marshal Blücher and his Prussian army, consisting of 100,000 men, at Ligny; and Blücher's defeat was the result. Another party of the enemy contended on the same day at Quatre Bras, against the duke of Brunswick-Oels, and his corps of black jagers; but in that conflict the French were driven from the field, though, in the pursuit, the brave duke received a wound, of which he instantly expired. On the 17th a deluge of rain fell. There is no truth in the story of an interview having taken place on the 17th between the duke of Wellington and marshal Blücher. The duke, in the early part of that day, had enough to do to conduct his unexampled retreat to Waterloo, from before Napoleon's united force, and superior cavalry; a movement which, but for a trifling affair at Genappe, would have been accomplished without the loss of a man. His grace remained at Quatre Bras so occupied, until half-past one, P. M.; and he then retired by the high road to the field of next day's battle, which he thoroughly examined. He was quitting the plain of Waterloo, to dine in the village of

that name, when an aide-de-camp of lord Anglesey overtook him, with the intelligence that the 7th hussars had been engaged with the French lancers, and that the enemy was pressing upon his rear. On hearing this, he turned back instantly to the plain, and remained there until dark. Blücher, on the other hand, was forced to keep his bed throughout the 17th; his age and increasing infirmities having rendered the fatigues of the previous day almost too much for him.

On the morning of the 18th, however, Blücher was nearly as early in the saddle as the illustrious duke, and took the head of Bulow's newly-arrived division. It is stated to have been almost ludicrous to see him urging on its onward course, like Milton's griffin through the wilderness, cheering the march-worn troops till the defile of St. Lambert rang to his old war-cry (whence his sobriquet) of 'Vorwärts!' (forwards!) and reminding them both of the rain having spared so much powder at the Katzbach, and of his solemn pledge to assist the English. As for Napoleon, on that most eventful day to him as well as to his opponents, when he had likewise early mounted his horse, he began to look out from an eminence he had reached, in search of the British cavalry. His first impression, on seeing so few English horse, was, that they had escaped; and he began to vent his disappointment to those around him in no measured terms. But Foy, who had had much Peninsular experience of the duke of Wellington's tactics, warned him not to rely on appearances. 'Wellington,' said he, 'never shows his troops. A patrol of dragoons will soon ascertain the fact; but if he be yonder, I warn your majesty, 'que l'infanterie Anglaise, en duel, est le diable!'

We must here state that Napoleon, out of his large disposable force, had 75,000 men on the field, and the duke, in all, about 65,000. The French had 25,000 cavalry, mostly

experienced troops, and forming part of the 75,000. Napoleon's men were wholly French, and, under their idol, felt assured that victory would crown their efforts; while the positive number of British soldiers was but 32,000, including the German legion of Brunswickers, &c.—the rest being composed of Belgian, Dutch, and Nassau troops, and 16,000 out of the 65,000 never acting on the field, but remaining stationed all day near Hal, to cover the approach to Brussels.

The field whereon was now to be fought a battle, the most singular in its accompaniments, and the most momentous in its consequences, of any before recorded in the history of Europe, is not far distant from the spot on which Dumouriez gained the first victory of revolutionary France over the Austrians. Though the scourge of war had spared for more than twenty years the fruitful plains of Belgium, its return seemed permitted by Providence to achieve, at one blow, on the same soil, the annihilation of a military tyranny, which had, from its first rise, sought the aggrandisement of a single state, at the expense of trampling on the rights and independence of all others. The road from Brussels runs through the forest of Soignies, composed of close-growing beech-trees, to the village of Waterloo. Beyond that point, the wood assumes a more straggling appearance; and about a mile further, at the ridge of heights, called Mont Saint Jean, the trees almost disappear, and the country becomes quite open. The chain of heights extends for about a mile and a half, and corresponds with a similar but higher chain, running parallel with it. The two lines are separated from each other by a valley, not a mile in breadth; and the declivity on each side is a gentle slope, diversified by undulating banks, that seem as if formed by the action of water, although the valley is at present destitute of any stream. The ground is traversed by two high-roads, or causeways, both leading to Brussels; the one from Charleroi through

Genappe, and the other from Nivelles. On reaching the summit of the heights, these two roads unite at the hamlet of Mont Saint Jean, from which the British position was at some distance in advance. The British rear was nearer to the farm of Mont Saint Jean; and another farmhouse, called La Haye Sainte, is situated upon the Charleroi causeway, near the foot of its descent from the heights. In the middle of the valley, considerably to the right of the English centre, stood the château de Hougoumont, an old-fashioned Flemish villa, with a tower and species of battlement. It was bounded on one side by a large farm-yard, and on the other it opened to a garden, fenced by a brick wall, and an exterior hedge and ditch; the whole premises being encircled by a grove of tall beech-trees, covering a space of three or four acres.

The British army, with 120 pieces of artillery, was drawn up in two lines. The right wing, commanded by lord Hill, consisted of the 2nd and 4th English divisions, under sir Henry Clinton, and major-general Hinuber, the 3rd and 6th Hanoverians, and the 1st Belgians: its extremity was stationed at Merke Braine, where it was protected by an enclosed country, and deep ravines. The château of Hougoumont, which stood in front of the centre of this wing, formed a very strong advanced-post. The château and garden were occupied by the light companies of the guards, under lord Saltoun, and colonel Macdonnel; and the wood or park by the sharpshooters of Nassau. At the commencement of the action, the right wing presented the convex segment of a circle to the enemy; but, as the French gave ground, the extreme right came gradually round, and the curve being reversed, became concave, enfilading the field of battle, and the high road to Charleroi, which intersects it. The centre, under the prince of Orange, was stationed in the front of Mont Saint Jean: it was composed of the Brunswick and Nas-

sau troops, with the guards under major-general Cooke, and the 3rd English division commanded by sir Charles Alten. The farm of La Haye Sainte seemed as a key to the centre; it was fortified as well as the time permitted, and strongly garrisoned with Hanoverians. The left wing consisted of the 5th and 6th divisions, under sir Thomas Picton, with generals Kempt, Lambert, and Pack. It extended to Ter-la-Haye, which it occupied, and the defiles of which protected its extremity, and prevented it from being turned. From Smouhen, to which the flank of this wing reached, a road runs to Ohain, and the woody passes of St. Lambert, through which the duke of Wellington kept up a communication with the Prussian army at Wavres. The front line was composed of the *élite* of the army; the second was placed behind the declivity of the heights in the rear; the cavalry were principally posted in the rear of the left of the centre; and the artillery on the heights in front. In case of disaster, the wood of Soignies lay within two miles; and its verge might, by a few resolute troops, be defended against almost any force.

The force of the French army on the heights of La Belle Alliance was about 75,000 men, with nearly 300 pieces of cannon. The 2nd corps formed the left wing of the army, under Jerome Buonaparte, ex-king of Westphalia. It leaned its right upon the road to Brussels, and its left upon a small wood, within cannon-shot of the English army. The 1st corps was in the centre, under counts Reille and D'Erlon, on the road to Brussels, and opposite the village of Mont Saint Jean. The 6th corps, under count Lobau, with the cavalry of general D'Aumont, was kept in reserve, and destined to proceed in rear of the right to oppose the Prussians, as soon as they should make their appearance on the left of the British. The cavalry and the guards were in reserve in the rear. The French lines extended

two miles; those of the English a mile and a half. In such a confined theatre was the terrible battle to be fought, and this may in a great measure account for its sanguinary consequences.

THE BATTLE.

THE night of the 17th of June, 1815 (that previous to the conflict so imperishably designated by the epithet of WATERLOO), was a fitting precursor of the fury and the carnage of the coming day. The tempest raged, and the thunder rolled unremittingly, accompanied by such vivid and extensive sheets of lightning, and such deluges of rain, as are rarely witnessed out of tropical regions. Both armies had to sustain the rage of the elements, without the means either of refreshment or shelter; and the British soldiers were up to their knees in mud. Napoleon, on entering the field at the dawn of day, beheld his enemy drawn up in order of battle on the opposite heights; and, after his beforementioned allusion to the small amount of English cavalry, he exclaimed to his staff, with apparent exultation, 'Ah! je les tiens donc, ces Anglais!' and then proceeded, with his accustomed quickness, to make the necessary arrangements for combat. Having compelled a farmer, named La Coste, who lived at the house called La Belle Alliance, to act as his guide, he ascended an eminence, and acquainted himself with the various features of the surrounding country; every observation he made being carefully noted on a map which he carried rolled up in his hand. After his descent, he gave orders for the disposition of the troops; and before three o'clock they were all at their allotted stations. A courier had been previously despatched to marshal Grouchy, with orders to attack the Prussians at Wavres, and compel them to a general action. Though Napoleon must have been conscious that such an attempt would terminate in the annihilation of the marshal's corps, yet,

in that same selfish spirit which had urged him to desert his army in the retreat from Moscow, he conceived any sacrifice necessary, bating that of his own precious life, which would afford the chance of vanquishing 'the hero of the Peninsula,' who had so continually foiled his best tacticians, and paved the way for his exile to Elba. Simply to keep Blücher in check, as we should throw a hat or a handkerchief to divert the attention of a pursuing meadow-bull, the force of poor Grouchy was to be cast at the feet of 'marshal Vorwarts.'

A short time before the conflict of Waterloo began, Napoleon again ascended an eminence, on which an observatory had been recently erected by the king of the Netherlands, and whence he was enabled for the first time to gain a perfect view of both lines. He was forcibly struck by the appearance of the British troops—against whom he had never before, in the military action of above twenty years, as Homer would have sung, 'been placed, standing apart, to fight in contention'—*machesthai eridi*. He was, as a soldier, manifestly subdued in spirit by the brilliant coup d'œil presented to his sight; arising from the combined effects of the noble bearing, beautiful arrangement, thorough equipment, and, last not least, the imposing power of the scarlet and blue clothing, of his enemy. Trifles such as these, like the spark which can set the city in a blaze, affect the minds of the most ambitious and most reckless of men on occasion,—and more especially in the moments of apprehended danger. They speak to the heart, and produce such involuntary exclamations as that of king Ahab, when he saw the dreaded prophet Elijah—'Hast thou found me, oh! mine enemy?'—And the necessary reply to such interrogatory, 'I have found thee!' carries with it daggers to the breast of the inquirer. So was it with Napoleon, when he had feasted his eyes upon the splendid exhibition which the English arrayed forces presented. No more

did he exclaim, 'Je les tiens, donc, ces Anglais!'—but, grunting out at intervals an 'Ah! ah!—grand!—bell! bel!' he at length said (what we will translate), 'See how steadily those troops take their ground! How beautifully those cavalry form! Observe those grey horse (they were the Scots Greys)—are they not noble troops?'—and then, as if to shake off the melancholy forebodings which had assailed him, he suddenly changed his tone from a low to a high and loud one, and exclaimed, 'Mais voyez, mes amis—In half an hour I shall cut them all to pieces!' All the combinations for the attack were now made, under his own eye, with great skill and rapidity, the manœuvres being completely concealed from his antagonists by the nature of the ground.

The British army calmly awaited the result of these mighty preparations. Their illustrious chief had taken a commanding station under a tree on the Brussels road, precisely in the centre of the British line, near the top of Mout Saint Jean, from which every movement made or threatened could, with the aid of an achromatic telescope, be distinctly seen; and every arrangement was adopted to meet the first onset of the foe, upon whatever point of the line it might be made. An officer of the staff, on viewing the formidable forces of the enemy, expressed a wish that the Prussians had arrived. 'The roads are heavy,' replied his grace, 'they cannot be here before two or three o'clock; and my brave fellows will keep double that force at bay till then.'

About eleven o'clock the troops were busily engaged in cooking some provisions to recruit their strength, which was almost exhausted by long fasting and fatigue; but before they could partake of this refreshment, the voice of the aides-de-camp was heard, giving the solemn note of warning—'Stand to your arms! The French are moving!' A furious cannonade instantly began, which soon

spread along the whole line; and an immense array of French cuirassiers was seen sweeping across the plain, to embarrass the British deployments. But this first essay was checked by a brilliant charge of the Life Guards and Oxford Blues, which in a moment put the enemy to flight. The 3rd corps of the French army, in three divisions, now advanced towards the British right, it being the object of Napoleon to get possession of Hougoumont; the occupation of which would facilitate his efforts to turn this wing. Prince Jerome advanced to the assault of this important post; but after a vigorous contest with the Nassau troops, he was compelled to retreat. The attack was almost instantly renewed by general Foy, whose furious onset succeeded in driving the Nassau troops from the wood; and the château itself must have been carried, but for the desperate bravery of the light companies of the guards, by whom it was defended. A French officer and a few of his men actually forced their way into the court-yard, where colonel Macdonnel fought hand to hand with the assailants; and it was owing to an exertion of personal strength on the part of this gallant officer, that the gates of the château were closed against the enemy. Hougoumont now became completely invested; but its valiant defenders resolved to avail themselves to the utmost of the walls and deep ditches by which it was surrounded. At one time the French rushed through a hedge, which they conceived to be the barrier of the garden; but this exterior boundary only masked a garden wall, which was loop-holed and scaffolded, and all who penetrated through this opening were immediately shot. A furious contest raged at the same time in the orchard, every avenue of which was strown with the dead or wounded. Finding all other means to penetrate the château unavailing, the French brought up some howitzers, the shells from which soon set the outhouses on fire, together with a large haystack in the

court-yard; and numbers of the wounded of both parties, who had been placed indiscriminately in one of the fired buildings, perished in the flames. Yet the intrepid defenders of Hougoumont, though surrounded by this assemblage of horrors, refused to yield; and when they were driven, by the ignition of the château itself, into the garden, they maintained the combat through the remainder of the day, under colonels Woodford and Macdonnel, and never permitted the enemy to advance beyond its precincts. The sanguinary nature of this dreadful combat may be appreciated from the fact, that more than 2000 dead and wounded lay around this post in a very short space of time!

The partial success of the enemy in getting possession of the wood, which in a great measure separated Hougoumont from the British line, favoured a desperate attack, which was made by the remainder of prince Jerome's corps, on the duke's right wing. This movement was conducted in the most formidable style of French tactics; the preparations being carried on under cover of the clouds of smoke which were driven from the burning houses towards the British position. Artillery, dexterously placed, and admirably served, with swarms of sharpshooters, endeavoured by their fire to thin the ranks, and distract the attention of the opposing battalions. Heavy bodies of cuirassiers and lancers advanced, supported by dense columns of infantry marching with shouldered muskets, to take advantage of the first impression made by the cavalry, to rush forward, and complete the destruction of the broken ranks of the British by the bayonet. The duke was aware that Napoleon would resort to this most favourite mode of attack; and he was prepared to meet it. He had formed his battalions into separate squares, each side of which was four men deep, and the squares were arranged alternately, like the squares on a chess-board, so that each of those in the rear covered

the interval between two of those in front. It was impossible that this formation could be broken by cavalry, if the men preserved their presence of mind; for in the event of horsemen venturing between the squares, they would be exposed to an exterminating fire in front and on both flanks. The artillery was placed in the intervals of the line of squares; while infantry, the Brunswick yagers, and sharpshooters, detached in front, skirmished with the French tirailleurs, and preserved the battalions in a great measure from their desultory but destructive fire.

This mode of formation presented such an apparent inequality of numbers to the eye, that a spectator, unacquainted with military tactics, would not have supposed it possible that these small detached black masses could have resisted for a moment the furious torrent that was about to assail them. The French cuirassiers and lancers rushed on with a noise and clamour which seemed to unsettle the firm earth over which they galloped, and made a tremendous dash on the guards and Brunswickers; but the steady appearance of the latter soon checked their ardour. Repulsed at the first onset by a destructive volley fired at ten yards distance, the cuirassiers used every effort of the most determined valour to throw these immoveable phalanxes into disorder. As if reckless of life, they galloped up to the very bayonets, cut at the soldiers over their muskets, and fired their pistols at the officers. Others rode at random between the squares, and were mown down by the crossing fires, or by attacks of the British cavalry which rushed at intervals from the rear; while those squadrons, that, less daring, stood at gaze, were swept off in hundreds by the British artillery, which was never in higher order than on this memorable day. Still undismayed, fresh squadrons of the enemy pressed on with desperate courage; or, if the cavalry attacks were suspended for a moment, it was only to give place to

the operations of their celebrated artillery, which, at 100 yards distance, played on the British squares with the most destructive execution. The cuirassiers, meantime, waited like birds of prey, to dash at any point where the slaughter should make the slightest opening; but their intrepid opponents, closing their files, with steady composure, over the bodies of their dead and dying comrades, still presented to their view that compact array of battle, which rendered every new effort to disorder it abortive. During the interval of the cavalry-attacks, the squares sought protection from the murderous effect of the French artillery, by deploying into a line four deep, and lying on the ground; but in many instances they had scarcely time to perform this evolution, when they were again called upon to re-form and oppose fresh charges. The promptitude and coolness with which the manœuvres were executed, at length convinced the enemy of the rashness of their enterprise; and the battle slackened in this quarter, to rage with greater fury on the other points of the line. The right continued still exposed to a severe cannonade; but the interval of comparative tranquillity was seized to reinforce with six companies of the guards, under colonel Hepburn, the brave garrison of Hougomont, which succeeded in driving back Foy's division, and in regaining possession of the wood.

Defeated in his object of turning the right wing, and establishing himself on the road to Nivelles, Napoleon now organized the whole of his forces for a combined attack, with all arms, on the centre and left of the British position, which, if successful, would cut it in two, separate the British army from that of the Prussians, and make him master of the road to Brussels. Preceded by the fire of their immense artillery and numerous sharpshooters, vast columns of infantry and cavalry were seen moving across the plain to charge on different points at the same moment; and

while a strong body advanced to the attack of La Haye Sainte, the key of the British centre, which they speedily invested, another pressed on to the heights of Mont St. Jean, and a third moved on Ter la Haye, to the left of the position, where the 5th and 6th British divisions were posted, with some Belgians, and a brigade of heavy dragoons under the command of sir Thomas Picton. The mode of attack on this point was of the most tremendous description, and was intended, on the part of the French, to be a battle of cavalry and cannon. Headed by the iron-clad cuirassiers, on whose mail the musket-balls were heard to ring, as they glanced off without injuring the wearers, the French infantry ascended the heights where the remnant of Pack's gallant brigade (the Royal Scots, 42nd, 44th, and 92nd regiments) were posted. Some Belgian troops were forced to give way before the rapid onset of the enemy; but the duke of Wellington, who happened to be in that part of the field, moved up the British brigade to a kind of natural embrasure, formed by a hedge and bank in front of the line; and from thence the brave Highlanders gave the enemy a reception similar to that which they had experienced from the guards and Brunswickers on the right. Sir Thomas Picton now advanced to support the corps with sir James Kempt's brigade, composed of the 28th 32nd, 79th, and 95th regiments. Vast masses of French infantry had arrived at this time behind the very hedge where the British were posted. Their muskets were almost muzzle to muzzle, and a French mounted officer attempted to seize the colours of the 32nd; when general Picton, suddenly resolved on becoming the assailant, and promptly forming his division into squares, rushed through the hedge, and attacked the advancing columns of infantry and cavalry with charged bayonets. Appalled by this almost unparalleled act of intrepidity, the enemy hesitated, fired a volley, and fled; but that

valley proved fatal to one of the noblest commanders of whom the British army could boast. A musket-ball struck the right temple of the gallant Picton, and in a moment numbered him with the dead. Notwithstanding this disastrous event, the division maintained its charge under sir James Kempt, till it had repulsed the enemy from the crest of the hill, to which they had nearly attained.

Before the French had time to recover from the effects of this furious attack, a brigade of heavy dragoons, commanded by sir William Ponsonby, wheeled round the extremity of the cross-road, full on the flank of the foe. It was composed of the Royals, Greys, and Fenniskillens — England, Scotland, and Ireland, in high rivalry and irresistible union. The 92nd Highlanders (now reduced to 200 men) had at this moment pierced the centre of a column of French infantry of as many thousands, and the Greys dashing in at the opening, the two regiments cheered each other, shouting, 'Scotland for ever!' The cuirassiers and lancers now advanced to save their infantry; and the Greys being reinforced by the Royals and Fenniskillen dragoons, one of the most dreadful cavalry engagements recorded in the history of modern warfare ensued. The far-famed cuirassiers maintained a long and murderous struggle against the British dragoons, in which some extraordinary feats of dexterity and courage were displayed. The impenetrable armour of the French gave them a decided advantage over their antagonists, who could only strike at their necks or limbs; but numbers of them were cut down; and at length both cuirassiers and lancers fled in confusion, abandoning their artillery and infantry, when nearly 3000 prisoners, two eagles, and several pieces of cannon, rewarded the prowess of the victors. The exultation, however, which this success was calculated to inspire, received a severe check by the fall of the in-

trepid leader of the attack, sir William Ponsonby.

Napoleon, from his commanding station near La Belle Alliance, viewed the progress of this mighty struggle, and the valorous, but fruitless efforts, which his devoted followers were making to secure the victory. The intrepid conduct of the British frequently called forth his eulogiums; and observing how the chasms were everywhere filled up the instant they had been made by the French artillery, he exclaimed to Marshal Soult, 'Quels braves soldats! comme ils travaillent! tres bien!' adding, 'Mais il faut qu'ils plient!' 'Non, sire!' replied Soult, 'ils aimeraient mieux être taillés en pièces.' To the intelligence of every fresh repulse, his only reply was, 'Avant! avant!' Acting on this principle, the defeat of his troops on the right and left led him to adopt the most desperate efforts to break through the centre, in front of which La Haye Sainte was still vigorously defended by the Hanoverian light troops. At each end of the court-yard of this farm-house stood a large door or gate, through which the besiegers and the besieged fired at each other with dreadful effect. When the last cartridge of the Hanoverians had been expended, they kept up an unequal contest with swords and bayonets through the windows and embrasures, till the increasing numbers of the enemy enabled them to storm the house; but the resistance of the gallant Germans ended not until nearly their last man had ceased to breathe, and the whole building presented a scene of shattered ruin.

The French had for some hours kept up a violent cannonade on the centre of the British line; but the latter having now established a post on the causeway, Napoleon ordered his general to direct their main force against the troops so posted. The gallant soldiery resisted for hours the varied attacks of the enemy's cavalry and artillery; and a somewhat particular description of the kind of con-

flict sustained by a square at this post, composed of the 30th and 73rd, commanded by sir Colin Halket, may afford some idea of this extraordinary description of combat. To no square did the French artillery and cuirassiers pay more frequent visits: so that the soldiers began almost to recognise the faces of those messengers of death. Sometimes they galloped up to the very points of the bayonets; at other times, confiding in their armour, they fearlessly walked their horses round this bulwark of steel, that they should have more time to seek some chasm in the ranks at which they might rush in. The cuirassiers were repeatedly driven off; and upon each of these occasions the line was promptly formed, to give the flying foe a more effective volley, or to render the enemy's artillery less destructive to themselves. When again the storm was seen gathering and rolling on, the command to 'Reform square—prepare to receive cavalry,' was promptly and accurately obeyed. In a moment the whole were prostrate on their breasts, to let the iron shower fly over; and they were erect in an instant, when the cannon had ceased, and the cavalry charged. At one period of the combat, the commander of the cuirassiers attempted to throw this invincible phalax off its guard by a *ruse-de-guerre*, by lowering his sword to sir Colin Halket; when several of the English officers cried out, 'Sir, they surrender!' But the general justly suspecting that a body of well-mounted cavalry would not surrender to a corps fixed on the spot in defensive position, made no other reply than, 'Be firm—fire!' and the volley put the colonel and his cuirassiers to flight, with a laugh of derision from the men he had intended to cut to pieces. The duke of Wellington paid frequent visits to this distinguished square; and having upon one occasion inquired 'How they were?' their commander replied, 'that nearly two-thirds of their number had fallen, and that the rest were so exhausted,

that it might be attended with advantage if one of the foreign corps who had not suffered, would take their station even for a short time.' The reply of the duke was, 'It is impossible! the issue of the battle depends on the unflinching front of the British troops; you and I and every Englishman in the field must die on the spot we now occupy.' Enough, my lord,' said sir Colin, 'we stand here till the last man falls.' And, though himself severely wounded, this brave man would no doubt have kept his word, had not the British cavalry soon flown to his relief.

The duke now felt that the crisis had arrived which called for all his energies; and they were exerted with decisive effect. Many of his short but encouraging phrases had a talismanic effect on the men. Riding up to the 95th, when in front of the line, awaiting a formidable charge of cavalry, he exclaimed, 'Stand fast, 95th,—we must not be beaten—what will they say in England?' To another regiment, when fiercely engaged, he said, 'Hard pounding this, gentlemen—let's see who will pound longest. Never mind, we'll win the battle yet!'

The situation of the British line had become extremely hazardous; and several of the regiments, having no longer a sufficient number of men left to form square, were obliged to receive the cavalry in line, in order to cover the necessary space of ground. A close column of French infantry now pressed forward to carry the village of Mont St. Jean, in the rear of the British centre; but some gallant charges from the latter threw the assailants into disorder. The hussars displayed their usual courage; but, notwithstanding the heroic exertions of the earl of Uxbridge, their light blood-horses were forced to give way before the ponderous rush of the cuirassiers, and great destruction would have ensued, had not the household brigade, composed of the life guards, Oxford blues, and 1st

dragoon guards, led on by sir John Elley, made a charge on the French cavalry, which was productive of the most tremendous effects. The weight and armour of the cuirassiers proved ineffectual against the shock of this splendid and irresistible brigade—they were literally ridden down upon the field—hundreds were driven headlong into a quarry or gravel-pit, where they rolled, a confused and undistinguishable mass of men and horses, till the fire of the cavalry and artillery put a period to their sufferings. Those who for some time stood their ground, proved also the superior strength of the British soldiers, with whom they fought hand to hand. A corporal of the life guards, named Shaw, well known as a pugilist, and equally formidable as a swordsman, slew or disabled ten cuirassiers with his own hand, before he was killed by a pistol-shot. The officers, as well as the men of this heroic band, were closely engaged in individual combat with the enemy. Sir John Elley, who was remarkable for his strength, his horsemanship, and his skill in the use of the sword, performed feats of valour that would have done honour to the brightest days of chivalry; and being at one period of the combat surrounded by six or seven cuirassiers, he, though severely wounded, cut his way through them, leaving four of his assailants dead behind him—their wounds bearing striking indications of the unusual strength of the arm that had inflicted them. Colonel Ferrier, of the 1st life guards, fell on this memorable occasion. He had led his regiment to the charge no less than eleven times; and most of the charges were not made till after his head had been laid open by the cut of a sabre, and his body pierced with a lance. Major Pack, of the royal horse guards, was also particularly distinguished. He had been one of the first to dash amongst the ranks of the enemy; and he and his opponent having dismounted each other, he leaped upon a troop-horse,

and, in his second charge, led his squadron against a column of cuirassiers. He killed the officer commanding the column; but he himself was the next moment run through the body, and numbered with the slain. The result of this brilliant charge was most important. The enemy were driven from the heights with the loss of 1200 prisoners, the farm of La Haye Sainte was retaken, and the British were re-established in the positions they had before occupied. The duke of Wellington could now with difficulty restrain the impetuosity of the troops; who, after standing so many hours exposed to the most furious charges, eagerly demanded to be led against the enemy. 'Not yet, not yet, my brave fellows!' was his reply; 'be firm a little longer—you shall have at them by and by.'

Indeed the patience of the illustrious chief, as well as that of his heroic followers, must have been put to the severest test. The combat had continued for six hours with unabated fury, and one-fourth of the allied troops were killed or wounded—while the remainder were worn out with fatigue, and destitute of the smallest refreshment. It would be impossible, under such circumstances, but that the spirits of the men must droop. In fact, during the intervals of the cavalry attacks, while the French artillery were dealing havoc in the British ranks, an indifference to life seemed spreading fast among the soldiery, though, on the near approach of the enemy, they became as alert as ever. Yet the duke remained cool, and apparently cheerful; and he was fully determined to maintain the contest so long as a single regiment continued firm at its post. An aide-de-camp coming up with the intelligence that the 5th and 6th divisions were nearly destroyed, and that it was utterly impossible they could maintain their ground—'I cannot help it,' said, his grace: 'they *must* keep their ground: would to God that Blucher or night were come!'

While the battle was thus raging in the centre, the 2nd corps of French, under prince Jerome, had renewed their attacks upon the right wing. The post of Hougoumont, which had received repeated reinforcements from the division of the guards, had never ceased to be the object of the most desperate assaults; but its brave garrison maintained it to the last, and the loss of the French, in this attack alone, is estimated at 10,000 men. Sir Frederick Adam's brigade, who were close to the right of the centre, had been for two hours exposed to a dreadful fire of artillery, without being able to discharge a musket at the enemy. The brigade had only joined the army the preceding evening; and the men were so exhausted by a fatiguing march of two days, that the continued roar of cannon and bursting of shells was not sufficient to prevent several of them from falling asleep; in which state many fell victims to the balls which flew thickly around them. At length the French lancers made a dash at some artillery in the rear. The brigade were instantly on their feet, formed square, and repelled the enemy. The latter returned again and again to the charge; but, aided by the 13th light dragoons, who came up to their assistance, under colonel Boyer, the brigade finally succeeded in putting the lancers to the rout.

It was now five; and the British, though dreadfully weakened, still gallantly maintained their position at every point; but some movements on the enemy's right began to indicate that they had ascertained that their opponents were about to be supported in the unequal contest by their Prussian allies, whose arrival had been so long and ardently expected. In fact, general Bulow, with two brigades of infantry and a corps of cavalry, was then defiling by Ohain, in the rear of the French army, after having encountered extraordinary difficulties in his passage through the woods of St. Lambert. But while Napoleon continued the main con-

flict against the British position, he opposed to this new enemy the 6th corps, under count Lobau; and an engagement was immediately commenced in this quarter, but with little energy, as Bulow did not wish to undertake any thing serious till the arrival of marshal Blucher.

It is thought that Napoleon, as a prudent general, should at this moment have discontinued the action, the whole of the Imperial guard being still in reserve—who, considering the exhausted state of the British, would have been more than sufficient to cover his retreat on the Dyle and Sambre. But his recollection of the day of Marengo, where his reiterated efforts, after the battle had been to all appearance lost, secured him the victory, led him to hope for a similar triumph on this occasion,—as on that triumph alone rested his hopes of uniting the French nation in support of his throne. After reflecting for some moments on his critical situation, he determined again to attack the weakest part of the British line in great force; hoping to carry it before the remainder of the Prussians could arrive. He accordingly brought forward the whole of the cavalry of his guard, and directed it, supported by fresh masses of infantry, on the centre of the position. Its first shock was irresistible, and thirty pieces of cannon fell into its power. But the presence of the duke of Wellington quickly averted the danger which now menaced the army. Placing himself at the head of the three battalions of English, and three of Brunswickers, he addressed them in a few animating sentences, and then led them against the enemy, who were now proudly advancing to the very rear of his lines. In a moment victory was rescued from their grasp—they abandoned the artillery they had taken, and fled with precipitation.

During the conflict in the centre, count Lobau had repulsed Bulow's advanced guard, and driven them again into the woods; and Napoleon

expressed the strongest confidence that Grouchy was moving in the same line as the Prussians, and would shortly arrive to his assistance. He therefore resolved to persevere in his exertions to carry the British positions, notwithstanding the immense sacrifice of lives which was the consequence of every fresh attack; and so certain was he of success, even at this advanced period of the battle, that he ordered his secretary to send an express to Paris, announcing that the victory was his! About seven it was told him that powerful bodies of Prussians were opening from the woods near Frischermont, and threatening his rear; but he treated the aide-de-camp who brought the intelligence with contempt. 'Allez-vous-en!' said he, 'vous avez peur—allez aux colonnes qui se déploient, et vous verrez que ce sont celles de Grouchy.' All who obeyed his command were killed or taken; and he was made sensible of his error, when the Prussians commenced the attack on his right wing. He still, however, believed that Grouchy must be as near to support as this new enemy was to attack him; and he caused general Labedoyere to circulate this opinion amongst the troops, with whom he now resolved to make a last grand effort. Having detached the whole of the reserves of the 6th corps, and the young guard, with 100 pieces of cannon, against the Prussians, he brought forward 15,000 of the Imperial guard, who, having remained on the ridge of La Belle Alliance, had scarcely yet drawn a trigger in the action. He placed himself at the head of these celebrated troops, descended the hill, and led them till they reached a ravine, half way between La Belle Alliance and La Haye Sainte, where he was protected from the fire of the British artillery. Here his veteran guards defiled before him for the last time. Led on by marshal Ney, this noble column then pressed on with loud shouts, and the clang of warlike music. Over ground covered with heaps of

slain, and slippery with blood; rallying in their progress such of the broken cavalry and infantry of the line, as still maintained the combat. Such was the clamour, that the British believed Napoleon himself would be the leader in this new attack; but they were not unprepared to meet him. The duke of Wellington had not failed to improve the advantages which the repeated repulses of the enemy had given him. The extreme right of the line, under lord Hill, had gradually gained ground after each unsuccessful charge, on the right of the centre, until, the space between Hougomont and Braine-la-Leude being completely cleared of the enemy, this wing, with its artillery and sharpshooters, was brought round from a convex to a concave position, so that its guns raked the enemy as it debouched upon the causeway. The service of the British artillery upon this occasion was so accurate and destructive, that the heads of the French columns were enfiladed and almost annihilated before they could reach the high road; so that they seemed for a considerable time advancing from the hollow way, without gaining ground upon the plain. The enthusiasm of the Imperial guard, however, enabled them to overcome this obstacle, as well as a charge of the gallant Brunswickers, which they repelled with considerable slaughter. They rushed up to the heights with great spirit, at a point where the British guards lay prostrate in a hollow, to avoid the destructive fire of the French artillery, by which the assault was covered. The duke had placed himself on a ridge behind, declaring he would never quit it but in triumph; and as soon as the Imperial guard had approached within one hundred yards, he suddenly exclaimed, 'Up, guards, and at them!' The French battalions appeared startled at the apparition of this fine body of men, who were drawn up four deep; but soon recovering their composure, they advanced at the charge step, their

artillery filing off to the right and left, till they were within twenty yards of their opponents, and were on the point of dashing at them with their bayonets, when a volley was poured upon them by the British, which literally drove them back with its shock. A second volley increased their confusion; and before they had time to deploy, the British cheered, and charged them with an effect that proved irresistible. The duke himself at this crisis brought up general Adam's brigade, and completed the rout of the enemy. A regiment of tirailleurs attempted to cover their retreat, and attack the pursuers; but they fled at the very cheers of the British. The old guard had still preserved their squares; but they were now charged by the British cavalry, forced, and almost entirely cut to pieces; and their leader, general Cambrone, was taken prisoner.

Napoleon beheld, from his station in the ravine, the rout of his chosen troops. He talked of rallying them to make another effort, still persisting that Grouchy was at hand; but from this he was dissuaded by Bertrand and Drouot, who represented how much the fate of France and of the army depended upon his life. Hitherto he had shown the greatest coolness and indifference throughout this eventful day; but when he observed his celebrated guards recoil in disorder, the cavalry intermingled with the foot, and trampling them down, he said to his attendants, '*Ils sont mêlés ensemble!*' shook his head, and retired to his former station on the heights of La Belle Alliance. There, on the advance of the British line, he exclaimed; '*A présent tout est perdu —sauvons nous!*' and instantly left the field (then half-past eight), accompanied by five or six officers, and galloped along the road to Genappe. No other course but flight now remained for him, to escape death or captivity.

The duke of Wellington had hitherto suffered no prospect of advantage to draw the main army from its position, but now the decisive moment

was come for bringing this dreadful engagement to a termination. The acuteness of his sight enabled him to perceive the advance of the Prussians in great force on the enemy's right flank; while the ruinous disorder in which the French fled before the British guards, declared them past the power of rallying. He therefore determined to become the assailant in his turn. He ordered the whole army to advance to the charge; the centre formed in line four deep, and the battalions on the flanks in squares for their security; the duke himself, with his hat in his hand, leading the whole line, which was supported by the cavalry and artillery. This movement is represented as having been one of the finest military spectacles ever witnessed; and, could it have been viewed apart from the scene of carnage which the field exhibited in every quarter, must have excited an indescribable glow of triumph in the bosoms of the gallant troops, who for so many hours had maintained, with unwavering constancy, the unequal contest. The setting sun, which throughout the sanguinary day had been veiled in clouds, now burst forth for a moment, and darted a cheering ray on the British columns, as they rushed down the slopes, and crossed the plain that separated them from the French position. To ascend the heights of La Belle Alliance was the work of a moment,—though in the presence of the fire of 150 pieces of cannon. Some resistance was still offered by the remnant of the Imperial Guard, rallied by marshal Ney; but it was quickly overcome. The reserve of the young guard, which was posted in a hollow between Belle Alliance and Monplaisir, was totally routed by the 52nd and 71st regiments, who, after they had put the enemy to flight, separated, and, running on two sides of an oval for a considerable way, met again, and thus cut off a great number of prisoners. The first line of the French was now thrown back upon and mingled with the second, in inextricable confusion: pressed by

the British in front, and by the Prussians on the right flank and in the rear; corps of varied description were blended in one confused tide of flight, which no person attempted to guide or to restrain. Baggage-wagons, dismounted guns, ammunition-carts, and arms of every description, cumbered the open fields as well as the causeway; and with them were intermingled in thick profusion the corpses of the slain, and the bodies of the wounded, who in vain shrieked and implored compassion, as the fugitives and their pursuers drove headlong over them. The victory of Waterloo was achieved!

We have only a few parting remarks to make. It is an indisputable fact, that to the coming up of the Prussians *at last*, is to be ascribed the utter ruin of the French army, on the day of Waterloo; and we should be ungrateful did we not acknowledge the service. But we cannot subscribe to the theories, whether French or Prussian, which give it the full merit of saving from destruction an army, which had, while as yet unsupported, repulsed every attack, and annihilated the French cavalry. We know that no thought of so disastrous a result crossed the minds of those about the duke's person; and that officers of his staff, who left the field wounded towards the close of the action, did so with no other feeling of anxiety, than for the personal safety of him they left behind. It is said that Bertrand, subsequently, at St. Helena, set much store by an opera-glass, through which Napoleon had discovered the English general at Waterloo. We believe that neither the duke nor his staff succeeded at any moment of the action in identifying the person, or exact position, of his great opponent; though few great battles have brought rival leaders so near. That our chief was every where, except in the rear, is well known; and the casualties among his own staff, of whom many were hit at his side, bespeak the hot service he went through. Danger pur-

sued him to the last. After sixteen hours in the saddle, he was alighting at his own quarters, when the spirited animal, long afterwards a pensioner in the paddocks of Strathfieldsaye — as if conscious of the termination of his labours — jerked out his heels in a fashion, which a slight change of direction might have made fatal to his late rider. Such an exploit would have rendered poor 'Copenhagen' rather more famous than 'the little gentleman in black velvet,' so often toasted in our Jacobite revels of the last century.

The following passage, from a Prussian pen, shows that there need be no dispute between the two allied nations, as to their respective contributions, under God, to the victory so gloriously achieved on the plains of Waterloo. 'Upon the question, "Who really fought and won the battle of the 18th," no discussion, much less contention, ought to have arisen. Without in the slightest degree impeaching the just share of Prussia in the victory, or losing sight for a moment of the fact that she bore a great share of the danger, and drew much of it from her allies and upon herself, at a decisive moment, no unprejudiced person can conceal from himself that the honour of the day is due to the Anglo-Netherlandish army, and to the measures of its great leader. The struggle of Mont St. Jean was conducted with an obstinacy, ability, and foresight, of which history affords few examples. The great loss of the English also speaks the merits of their services. More than 700 officers, among them the first of their army, whether in rank or merit, and upwards of 10,000 soldiers, fell, or retired wounded from the field.' We may here remark, in justice to the Prussians, that their loss on the 18th has been greatly underrated by many writers. The return of killed and wounded, for the 14th corps alone, shows a loss of 5000; of which 1250 were killed. This bloody struggle occurred principally in the village of Planchenoit; the capture

of which is compared by the Prussians with that of Blenheim, in the battle of Hochstet. It is a part of the action which has been little noticed, but which was creditable alike to French and Prussians. The village was stormed and retaken three times. We think that the entire loss of the Prussian army on the 18th, could hardly have been less than 7000, at which their authorities compute it. Especial credit is due to Thielman, who, during the day of the 18th, resisted the obstinate endeavours of Grouchy's far superior force, to cross the Dyle at Wavres. Grouchy, indeed, effected towards evening the passage of that river at Limalès, but too late for his purpose of dividing the Prussian army, or forcing Blücher to concentrate his force, and abandon his allies. We know not which most to admire—the determination of Blücher to redeem his pledge of succour to Wellington, or the gallantry with which Thielman enabled Blücher to carry this resolution into effect—protecting at once the flank and rear of the Prussian army, guarding one road of direct access to Brussels itself, and preventing Grouchy from marching to the assistance of Napoleon. This struggle, so unequal in point of numbers, was continued for some hours on the 19th. It was not till Vandamme had advanced on the direct road to Brussels, as far as Rossijères, on the verge of the wood of Soignies, thereby turning the right flank of Thielman, that the latter abandoned the defence of Wavres, and began an orderly retreat on Louvain. He had previously learned the extent of the success of the allies on the 18th, and must have been easy as to the result of any further advance of Grouchy. The news reached the Frenchman a little later; and he forthwith commenced a retreat, which, perhaps, in its execution, did him even more honour than his previous exploits.

It should be borne in mind, that in the arrangement of the British force on the 18th, the whole English

army was divided into two corps; the prince of Orange having command of the one, and lord Hill of the other. The duke of Brunswick-Oels had expressed his private wish to lead one division against the enemy of his house; but this, from some point of etiquette, could not be acceded to, and the consequent disappointment to the gallant duke very nearly prevented his appearance among the allied troops. During the rout that ensued on the evening of the 18th, 40,000 (the whole remains of their army) French escaped, leaving behind them 150 pieces of cannon, and all their ammunition. The British lost on the occasion, generals sir Thomas Picton and sir William Ponsonby, and four colonels killed; and the killed, wounded, and missing of officers and privates, British, Hanoverians, and Brunswickers, amounted to nearly 13,000. The duke of Brunswick had fallen, as before stated, at Quatre Bras—determined, since he could not have a leading command, to be foremost in the fight,—on the 16th.

Lastly, the conflict of Waterloo itself, to be rightly understood, should be regarded as a battle fought by the right wing of an army, for the purpose of maintaining a position, till the arrival of its left should render victory certain. To act on the defensive, requires in the commander more tact, talent, and technical knowledge, than the assault, the *coup-de-main*, and all other modes of attack; and the strategy required and displayed at Waterloo by the duke of Wellington, has placed him highest on the roll of modern warriors—an occasion on which all the energies of his opponent's master-mind were aroused to baffle him. Till the approach of the Prussians, the battle was purely defensive on the part of the English, without preventing offensive operations, as far as charges of cavalry and infantry may be so termed; although there is no truth whatever in the statement made by several historians, that the duke flung

himself from time to time into this or that square, to animate the men. It was, in fact, a holding fast of ground; which, if successful, could not fail of leading to the most splendid results, the moment the flank movement should take effect. The two great leaders who thus, on this memorable day, respectively closed a military career, that will excite

the wonder of future generations, were born within three months of each other; the illustrious duke in May, and Napoleon Buonaparte in August, of the year 1769. The victory was gained on the same day, June the 18th, that king John signed Magna Charta in 1215—six exact centuries after that most important event.

EMINENT PERSONS.

NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE, born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, Aug. 15, 1769, was second son of an advocate of considerable reputation. His mother, Letitia Ramolini, was noted for her beauty, and the masculine spirit she displayed, when the Corsicans under Paoli were struggling to avoid French domination. Joseph was their eldest son, then Napoleon, Lucien, Louis, and Jerome, and three girls, Elise, Caroline, and Pauline. When the emperor of Austria, in after times, would have found the descent of the Buonapartes from some petty princes of Treviso, his son-in-law replied, 'I am the Rodolph of my race!' and he silenced a professional genealogist with, 'Friend, my patent dates from Monte Notte,' his first battle. The young Napoleon was placed at seven in the military school at Brienne, where Pichegru was his monitor, and where he first acquired the French language; and it has been thought that the hauteur displayed towards him as a foreigner by the young French gentlemen of this seminary, had a strong effect on the first political feelings of the future emperor of France. Certain it is, he looked upon the French as an inferior people, and secretly prided himself on being born an Italian. At fifteen he was removed to the Ecole Militaire at Paris, a wonderful compliment to his talents; and in two years spent there, he greatly advanced in mathematics, devoured history, and made Ossian his constant companion. In his sixteenth year, after being examined by the great Laclaux, he was made a lieutenant of

artillery, and soon after captain, but unemployed; and he witnessed the storming of the Tuileries by the revolutionary mob, observing, when he saw Louis XVI. come into a balcony with the red cap of liberty on his head, that 'his cannon ought to have kept the rabble out.' So poor was he at this juncture, that he proposed to his friend De Bourienne to take a house or two on lease, and sub-let them, to make a little money. In 1793 Napoleon was in Corsica, just as an order had come from Paris to deprive Paoli of his office of governor. Paoli raised a civil commotion, and endeavoured to enlist Napoleon on his side; but the latter joined the French in their assault upon Torre di Capitello, which proving unsuccessful, he was banished with his whole family from the island. In the height of his power he seemed to keep this disgrace in memory; for he never did any thing for Corsica, save defraying the cost of a small fountain at Ajaccio.

After residing some time in France, he was appointed by the revolutionary government to conduct the siege of Toulon, then defended by the French royalists and English; and by great perseverance he gained possession of the place. But he was soon unattached again, and was long in actual distress at Paris, projecting all sorts of plans for immediate subsistence. Happening to witness general Menou's timid conduct, when sent to harangue the national guards, who had assembled to compel a change of government, he was called on to give evidence before the Convention; and

Barras, one of the directors, who had seen his exertions at Toulon, proposed that 'his little Corsican' should meet the tumultuous soldiery on the following morning. It was on October 4th, 1795, that 30,000 national guards advanced by different streets, at two in the afternoon, to the siege of the palace. Buonaparte gave orders to fire; and in an instant the artillery swept the streets, and before nightfall every thing was quiet. In a few days after this exploit, the director of it was appointed commander-in-chief of the armies of France. It was now that he married Josephine de la Pagerie, a West Indian, the widow of viscount Beauharnais; and in ten days after that event he fought the battle of Monte Notte, near the Alps, against the Sardinians and Austrians, a victory which was succeeded by one at the bridge of Lodi, and the conqueror's entrance into Milan. Venice, Rome, Tuscany, successively fell to the French; and the battle of the bridge of Arcole, where Buonaparte was nearly suffocated in a bog; that of Rivoli, where he had three horses shot under him; and that of Mantua, all ended in favour of the invading army. The treaty of Campo-Formio, 1797, at length gave quiet to the Austrians, who thereupon ceded Flanders and the boundary of the Rhine to France.

Buonaparte was received on his return to Paris with strong marks of approbation by the people, though jealously regarded by the Directory. He courted no one, but passed all his evenings in mathematical studies, and was, February 1798, engaged in planning an attack upon England; but in May, the fleet which had been prepared for the descent, took its course towards Egypt, seizing on Malta on its route. The real object of this expedition was to penetrate to the British colony in Hindustan. After capturing Alexandria, Buonaparte declared himself a Mahometan, and advanced towards the Pyramids; and there the Mamluks, who were in great force, were cut to pieces, in

their spirited but rash attempt to stop his progress. It being the custom of the Mamluks, who are all nearly on an equality, to carry their wealth about them, an immense booty was obtained by rifling their dead bodies; a single corpse often making a soldier's fortune. At the moment that Cairo had fallen to the invaders, Nelson arrived with the British fleet off Alexandria, engaged the French, and after a most obstinate battle in the bay of Aboukir, completely annihilated their force. The French admiral's ship, *L'Orient*, blew up, with all on board; and Nelson obtained, what he himself called, 'not a victory, but a conquest.' When Buonaparte heard of Nelson's success, 'The fates,' he exclaimed, 'have decreed to France the empire of the land: to England that of the sea.'

Affecting to have rescued Egypt from the Mamluks' usurpation, the French general, without showing a desire to place any other party on the throne, set about improving the country. Canals, that had been shut up for centuries, were opened; the waters of the Nile flowed again where the skill of the Pharaohs and the Ptolemies had guided them; property was secured, cultivation extended, and extraordinary improvements were effected. While thus occupied, Buonaparte learned that the Turks were preparing to attack him: upon which he hastened into Syria, and soon possessed himself of El Arish and Gaza. At Jaffa, however, the Turks made a resolute defence; and when the French eventually entered it, savage indeed was their revenge. Part of the garrison (1200 men) were marched out three days after their surrender, divided into small parties, and bayoneted to a man; and Buonaparte justified the atrocious act, on the plea that he could not afford soldiery to guard so many prisoners. The siege of St. Jean d'Acre, which was defended by the pacha of Syria, Ahmed Djezzar, aided by the English admiral, sir Sydney Smith, had lasted sixty days,

when the plague broke out amongst the French, and compelled their retreat upon Jaffa, towards Egypt. The hospitals of Jaffa were soon crowded with the sick; and it is affirmed by De Lourienne, the general's own friend, that Buonaparte gave instructions for the poisoning of sixty French patients, whom the surgeons considered unlikely to recover—an order which was carried into effect. At length, with his remaining troops, the general reached Cairo; but he hastily repaired to Aboukir, on finding that a Turkish force had landed there, and, with Murat and Brienne as sub-commanders, completely routed it, taking captive Mustafa Pacha, the general, and putting *hors-de-combat* 18,000 Turks, being the precise number of the attacking army. This victory had scarcely been gained, when the letter of the abbé Sièyes, alluded to in the account of the Revolution, caused Buonaparte to hasten with all secrecy to Paris. He left Kleber as his successor in the command; touched at Corsica, but did not long stay there (finding, as he facetiously observed, 'that it rained cousins'); and having passed through the midst of the English fleet unseen at midnight, landed at St. Rapheau, and speedily reached Paris; where he was received by the Directory with an awe that prevented them from inquiring why he had quitted his command and duty. This was in 1799.

The parallel reign of France contains an outline of the career of Buonaparte (beginning at pages 100-1 of this volume) until his banishment to Elba (page 111); and we will now proceed to note what occurred, after the commissioners of the Great Powers had seen him safe on board the British frigate *Undaunted*, lying off the identical village of St. Rapheau, which had received him first on his ascent to, as it now did on his descent from, power.

Captain Usher, on receiving the ex-emperor on board his ship, on the morning of April 28th, 1814, with a

view to carry him to Elba, apologized to him for the comparatively insufficient accommodation the vessel afforded; but he was instantly interrupted by a 'Non, non,' from his guest, who observed 'that a British man-of-war was a palace.' 'When he had got on board (writes the captain), he walked round the ship; my people crowded about him, and, for the first time in his life, he felt confidence in a mob. [He was always, in his best days, manifestly subdued, and somewhat agitated, when he saw a large multitude of persons, not military, collected together, be the occasion what it might.] His spirits seemed to revive, and he told me next morning he had never slept better. On that (next) day he asked me a thousand questions, and seemed quite initiated in all nautical matters. At breakfast one morning, he asked me to bring to a neutral brig that was passing. I said, laughing, that I was astonished his majesty should give such an order, as it was contrary to his system to denationalize. He turned round and gave me a pretty hard nip, saying, 'Ah, captain!' When we were sailing by the Alps, he leaned on my arm for half-an-hour, looking earnestly at them. I told him he once passed them with better fortune. He laughed, and liked the compliment. We had a smart gale when off Corsica. He asked me to anchor at Ajaccio, the place of his birth; but the wind changing, made it impossible. In the gale I told him I had more confidence than Cæsar's pilot: the compliment pleased him. He was dressed very plainly, wearing a green coat, with the decorations of the legion of honour. The whole-length portrait of him, with the cocked-hat, and arms folded, as walking in the grounds of Malmaison, is the strongest likeness of him I have seen.'

On the 3d of May, at six in the evening, the English frigate appeared in the roads of Porto Ferrajo, in Elba; and hoisting out a boat, several officers lauded, and officially

communicated to the commandant of the port the events which had taken place in France, the abdication of Napoleon, and his arrival at Elba. All the necessary preparations therefore were made during the night for his reception ; and all the authorities were required to attend the ceremony of his entrance. On the ensuing morning a flag, sent on shore by the dethroned emperor, was taken into the town with solemnity, and immediately hoisted on the castle, amidst a salute of artillery. This flag had been made on board by his own direction, out of materials accidentally at hand, and consisted of a white ground, interspersed with bees ; the centre having the arms of Napoleon and those of the isle united. Some time after this flag had been hoisted, Napoleon landed, and was saluted with 101 rounds of cannon : he was dressed in a blue great coat, under which appeared a suit richly embroidered with silver ; he had a small round hat, with a white cockade ; and three fiddlers and two fifers preceded him, amidst a multitude of people, rather curious than eager to see him. He was conducted to the house of the mayor, where he received the visits of all the superior civil officers, spoke to each of them, affecting an air of confidence and even of gaiety, and putting a number of questions relative to the isle. After reposing some moments, he got on horseback, and, with his suite, visited the forts of Marciana, Campo, Capo Liviri, and Rio. On the 5th, accompanied by the commissioners, he visited the iron mines, which constitute the wealth of the isle of Elba ; and having asked what might be their revenue, was told 500,000 livres. 'These 500,000 livres will then be mine.' 'But, sir,' said one of his suite, 'you know, that by a decree you appropriated them to the legion of honour.' 'Where was my head when I gave this order ? (he replied) ; I have issued so many foolish decrees !'

At the moment of Buonaparte's arrival in Elba, he was to the last

degree unpopular. The visitations of the French had left lasting memorials among the suffering inhabitants ; but his address and liberality soon operated a change. He began instantly to alter and improve ; to make roads, and to erect buildings. In a few weeks a theatre was raised, an old church was converted into a spacious barrack, an easy carriage-road was made into the town, and conducted by the best level towards the opposite extremities of the island, and others were lined and levelled. Five thousand men were constantly employed, at six pails (three shillings) a day, in these various undertakings ; and the peasantry witnessed suddenly the effects of improvements, which till then perhaps they had scarcely imagined possible. The influx of foreigners, attracted by curiosity to see the individual who had been unceasingly present to the hopes and fears of almost every man in Europe during by far the most eventful period of its history, brought money and occupation to the islanders. They seemed to receive a new existence, and for the first time to regard themselves as holding an ascertained place in the map of the world. No one can wonder that the effect of all this should be a strong attachment on the part of the Elbese for the author of so much happiness. Add to this his insinuating address.—'Think of Napoleon, who had bowed with his single arm the necks of emperors, and shaken the foundations of the oldest European thrones, that seemed to have existed but by his license, talking, unattended and familiarly, with any common peasant whom he met in his walks,—interesting himself in his condition, listening to his story, hearing and, when possible, redressing his complaints.

The ex-emperor had four places of abode in the different quarters of the isle, to which he shifted about, as if to cheat his fancy with the notion that his dominions were actually extensive. He rose at two

in the morning, and studied till daylight French and Egyptian history. At daylight he went out on foot, or on horseback, whatever the weather, to superintend his public roads, or the building of some house. At nine he returned to breakfast, which consisted of a dish or two of meat, of which he eat sparingly, and of various kinds of wine, all of which he tasted. A cup of coffee followed. He then retired to bed, and slept two hours ; after which he remained in his cabinet, receiving strangers, directing his government, giving audiences on business, arranging his plans, and latterly, perhaps, preparing those proclamations which he issued on his landing in France. Towards evening, and before dinner, attended by Bertrand or Drouet, he took an airing, with more than his usual state, and always in his carriage. He dined at eight, and never without company. Persons of distinction he placed beside him ; but at the opposite side of the table there was left, as in royal usage, an open space. He ate rapidly of a great variety of dishes, calling for them promptly as he wanted them ; a few glasses of French wine, swallowed hastily, concluded his dinner ; and a dish of coffee was the signal for rising from the table, which all were expected to obey, whether they had dined or not. Half an hour sufficed for this meal. If ladies were at the table, he would generally help them himself, and sometimes, when gay, was full of compliment to all around. When thoughtful, he said nothing, and nobody presumed to address him. His drawing-room after dinner was usually the little garden behind the palace, where he spent the rest of the evening in conversation with his friends. He retired at eleven ; but his mother and sister Pauline still remained, till the company had separated. On Sunday he went regularly at twelve o'clock to mass, where all the authorities were expected to attend : the mass was celebrated in the palace. A le followed ; when he addressed him :

in order to each person round the circle.

On the 26th of Feb. 1815, not quite ten months after his arrival, the Elbese were astonished and afflicted to see him sail away, without notice to them of any sort, for France ; and indeed so secret had been his preparations for this mighty enterprise, that general Bertrand, his most confidential friend, had no intimation of it until the very moment of departure. He put to sea in his own brig, accompanied by four smaller vessels which he had seized for the purpose, having on board 1000 or 1100 men, composed of French, Italians, Poles, Neapolitans, and Elbese ; and on the 1st of March, *the day of the violets*, the secret symbol of his return, landed at Cannes, in the bay of Juan, between Frejus and Antibes. He immediately despatched fifteen men to summon Antibes. These were admitted within the gates, and immediately disarmed by order of the commandant. Napoleon, on hearing this, sent a detachment of fifty men to occupy Cannes, which he himself reached about midnight : his army bivouacked in the vicinity of the town, and early on the 2nd, the troops continued their march, preceded by four pieces of cannon, and a superb carriage, in which the emperor was seated. Finding the people of Grasse unfavourable to his cause, he proceeded through St. Valier, towards Digue, through which he passed on the 4th to Gap. On landing in France, he had issued two proclamations, one to the French people, and the other to the army, copies of which he disseminated as he proceeded ; and while at Gap, he printed several addresses from the soldiers of his guard to their comrades of the French army. These last were well calculated to make an impression upon his former subjects. The disasters and disgraces which they had recently sustained were all imputed to treachery ; and he held out to them the pleasing but delusive hope, that his presence would restore the

glory of the French empire. Meanwhile intelligence of the landing of Napoleon was received at Paris, and measures were promptly taken to counteract his design; but in spite of the proclamations of king Louis, and the activity of marshal Soult, the minister of war, the progress of the invader was truly alarming. From Gap he proceeded towards Grenoble on the 6th; and forty of his advanced guard fell in with the videttes of a force of 6000 troops of the line, who were on the march from Grenoble to oppose him. As they refused to communicate with Napoleon's general, Cambronne, the ex-emperor, when he came up, hurried to where the videttes had stopped, and making himself known to the soldiers (about 800 men), opened the breast of his coat, and told them, 'that the first man who wished to kill his emperor might do it.' An unanimous cry of 'Vive l'Empereur!' was their answer—the guard and the soldiers embraced—and the white cockade being torn off and trampled on, every man with enthusiasm supplied its place with the tricolor. When added to his ranks, Napoleon thus addressed the party: 'I come with a handful of brave men, because I reckon on the people and on you. The throne of the Bourbons is illegitimate? because it has not been raised by the nation; it is contrary to the national will, because it is contrary to the interests of our country, and exists only for the interests of a few families. Ask your fathers—ask all the inhabitants who arrive here from the environs, and you will learn from their own mouths the true state of affairs; they are menaced with the return of tithes, of privileges, of feudal rights, and of all the abuses from which your successes had delivered you. Is it not true, peasants?'—'Yes, sire,' answered one of them, 'they wish to chain us to the soil: you come as the angel of the Lord to save us!'

Fatigued as was the invader, he wished to reach Grenoble the same evening; and upon his arrival be-

fore it, notwithstanding the preparations made by the garrison to oppose him, the gates were suddenly thrown open, without a shot being fired, and at ten at night Buonaparte entered the city, in the midst of an army and a people animated by the most lively enthusiasm. The next day he was addressed by the municipality, and reviewed the troops in the midst of the whole population of the department; and then putting his army in a forced march to advance upon Lyon, he slept at Bourgoin on the 9th. Meanwhile the count d'Artois, the duc d'Orleans, and several marshals, had arrived at Lyon, fully relying on the fidelity of the inhabitants to the Bourbon cause; but on reviewing a regiment of dragoons, they had occasion to expect the worst. 'Let us march,' said the count d'Artois to a soldier covered with scars and decorated with three chevrons, 'against the disturber, and shout manfully Vive le Roi!' 'No, monsieur,' replied the fellow, 'no soldier will fight against his father. I can only answer you by crying, Vive l'Empereur!' The count instantly entered his carriage, and quitted Lyon, escorted by a single gendarme. As Napoleon advanced, he re-established in their offices all who had been deprived of them at the moment of his abdication; and with a rapidly augmenting army, he reached Auxerre on the 17th. Here count Bertrand gave orders to collect all the boats to embark the army, which was already four divisions strong, and to convey the men the same night to Fossard, so that they would be able to arrive at one o'clock in the morning at Fontainebleau; and while at Auxerre, Napoleon was joined by the perfidious Ney, who, on leaving Paris, had solemnly pledged his word to Louis 'that he would bring Buonaparte to his majesty's feet in a cage, like a wild beast, in the course of a week.'

The Bourbons had collected 20,000 men at Melun, strengthened by a powerful artillery; and the best

spirits seemed to prevail among the troops. Relying on their numbers, they had left the towns, the rocks, and the forest of Fontainebleau unguarded; preferring the flat plains of Melun, where the whole of their army might act at once against the comparatively small band of the invader. On the 20th, Napoleon reached and occupied Fontainebleau without the least opposition. He had then with him only 15,000 veteran troops: but others were either following him, or advancing to support his right and left flanks, on parallel lines of march. It was with great joy that he thus made the palace which had witnessed his downfall, the first to receive him in his success. Early on the morning of the 20th, preparations were made for the encounter which was expected to take place. The army was drawn up in three lines; the intervals and the flanks were armed with batteries; the centre occupied the Paris road. The ground from Fontainebleau to Melun is a continual declivity; so that, on emerging from the forest, you have a clear view of the country before you, whilst, on the other hand, those below can easily descry whatever appears on the eminence. An awful silence (broken only at times by peals of martial music, intended to confirm the loyalty of the troops, by repeating the royal airs of 'Vive Henri Quatre' and 'La Belle Gabrielle!' or by the voice of the commanders, and the march of the divisions to their appointed ground) pervaded the army of king Louis, under marshal Macdonald. All was anxious expectation: the chiefs conscious that a moment would decide the fate of the Bourbon dynasty—and the troops perhaps secretly awed at the thought of meeting in hostility the man whom they had been accustomed to obey. On the side of Fontainebleau no sound as of an army rushing to battle was heard; if the enemy were advancing, his troops evidently moved in silence: perhaps his heart failed him—and he had retreated during the night—if so,

France was saved, and Europe was still free.

It was about noon,—the Bourbon troops listening with 'delight to the loyal strain of 'Vive Henri Quatre'—when a trampling of horses became audible above the music. The sound approached: an open carriage, followed by a handful of Poles with their lances reversed, appeared among the trees on the skirts of the forest—it drove down the hill with the rapidity of lightning—it reached the advanced posts. The little flat cocked-hat, the grey surtout, the person of Napoleon, was recognised. In an instant the men burst from their ranks, surrounded the vehicle with cries of 'Vive l'Empereur,' and trampled their white cockades in the dust. 'Napoleon, Napoleon le Grand!' spread from rank to rank, while bareheaded, (Bertrand seated at his right, and Drouet at his left), Napoleon continued his course, now waving his hand, now opening his arms to the soldiers—whom he called 'his friends, his companions in arms, whose honour, whose glories, whose country, he now came to restore!' All discipline was forgotten, disobeyed, and insulted—the commanders-in-chief took to flight—thousands rushed on Napoleon's passage—acclamations rent the sky. At that moment his own guard descended the hill—the imperial march was played—the eagles were once more displayed—and those whose deadly weapons were to have been aimed at each other's life, embraced as brothers, and joined in universal shouts. In the midst of these greetings did Napoleon pass through the whole of the royal army; and, placing himself at its head, he pursued his course to Paris. The population of the villages flocked around him; the inhabitants of Paris, informed of his approach, came out to meet him; and at the head of 200,000 persons, in the midst of enthusiastic exclamations, he re-entered the capital.

The events of the 'Reign of an Hundred Days' (as the French still

love to designate the period which elapsed between the landing on 'the day of the violets' to what they call 'the battle of Mont St. Jean'—not of Waterloo, on any account—) will be found at p. 112 of this volume; and it now only remains to give an account of Napoleon's second exile, and of the manner in which he closed his eventful life. When the order from the allied sovereigns had reached the Bellerophon, off Rochefort, on board which the ex-emperor had taken refuge, for 'the removal of general Buonaparte to the British ship of war, Northumberland, therein to be conveyed a prisoner to St. Helena,' arrangements were made for bringing up the Northumberland from Spithead; and Napoleon was transferred thereto on the morning of August 4, 1815.

Mr. Warden, surgeon of the Northumberland, who went the voyage to St. Helena, thus writes. 'As the boat approached (bringing Buonaparte and his suite from the Bellerophon to the Northumberland), the figure of Napoleon was readily distinguished, from his apparent resemblance to the various prints of him. An universal silence prevailed when the barge reached the side; and there was a grave but anxious aspect in all the spectators, which, in the opinion of others as well as myself, was no small addition to the solemnity of the ceremonial. Count Bertrand ascended first, and having bowed, retired to give place to him whom he still considered his master. The whole ship's company seemed at this moment in breathless expectation. With a slow step Buonaparte mounted the gangway; and, on feeling himself firm on the quarter-deck, he raised his hat, when the guard presented arms, and the drum rolled. The officers of the Northumberland, who were uncovered, stood considerably in advance. Those he approached, and saluted with an air of the most affable politeness. He then addressed himself to sir George Cockburn, and hastily asked for the 'capitaine

de vaisseau,' who was immediately introduced; but on finding that he did not speak French, he intimated a desire, more by gesture than by words, to enter the cabin, where he continued for about an hour. His dress was that of a general of infantry, when it formed a part of his army. The coat was green, faced with white; the rest was white, with white silk stockings, and a handsome shoe with gold oval buckles. His face was pale; and indeed his general appearance justified the conjecture that he had not passed the preceding night in sound repose. His forehead is thinly covered with dark hair, as well as the top of his head, which is large, and has a singular flatness: what hair he has behind is bushy, and I could not discern the slightest mixture of white in it. His eyes, which are grey, are in continual motion, and hurry rapidly to the various objects around him. His teeth are regular and good; his neck is short, but his shoulders of the finest proportions. The rest of his figure, though blended with the Dutch fulness, is of a very handsome form.

'On the first day of his arrival on board, Napoleon ate a very hearty dinner, with which he drank claret. He passed the evening on the quarter-deck, where he was amused by the band of the 53d regiment; and he personally requested them to give the airs of 'God save the king,' and 'Rule Britannia.' At intervals he chatted in a way of easy pleasantry with any officer who was able to converse with him in French. He never moves his hands from their habitual places in his dress, but to apply them to his snuff-box; and never offers a pinch to any one with whom he is conversing. At dinner on the second day, he selected a mutton-cutlet, which he contrived to dispose of without the aid of either knife or fork. He passed much of the third day on deck, and appeared to have paid particular attention to his toilet. He played at whist in the evening, and was a loser. The whole of the next morning he passed in the

cabin; and it was acknowledged by his attendants that he was very seasick. In the afternoon he came upon deck; but I could not help smiling when I beheld the man who had stalked so proudly, and with so firm a step over submissive countries, tottering on the deck of a ship, and catching at any arm to save himself from falling. He seldom omitted an opportunity of asking a question. He asked Mr. Smith, the lieutenant, how long he had been in the service, and when he replied nine years, observed, 'That surely is a long time.' 'It is, indeed,' said Mr. Smith, 'and part of it was passed in a French prison.' Napoleon immediately shrugged up his shoulders, and closed the conversation. He asked our orthodox chaplain if he was not a *puritan* (meaning a presbyterian), and inquired the origin of the *religious* society of *Johnsonsians* in Scotland. Every one remembers the threatened invasion of England in 1805, and the various conjectures which were formed on this momentous subject. Napoleon, in conversation, averred that he had 200,000 men on the coast, and that it was his determination to head them in person. It was hinted to him that his flotilla was altogether insufficient, and that such a ship as the *Northumberland* would have run down fifty of them. This he readily admitted; but he stated that his plan was to rid the channel of English men-of-war; and for that purpose he had directed admiral Villeneuve, with the combined fleets of France and Spain, to sail apparently for Martinique, for the express purpose of drawing after him our best ships. Villeneuve was directed, on gaining a certain latitude, to take a baffling course back to Europe, and, having eluded the vigilance of Nelson, to enter the English Channel, and dash at the capital by way of Chatham. But Villeneuve was met on his return by sir Robert Calder; and, having suffered a defeat, took refuge in Ferrol.

It having been told Napoleon that people thought he would commit sui-

cide rather than be banished to St. Helena, he replied, sensibly enough, 'Suicide is a crime the most revolting to my feelings; nor does any reason present itself to my understanding by which it can be justified. It certainly originates in that species of fear which we denominate *poltronerie*. For what claim can that man have to courage, who trembles at the frowns of fortune? True heroism consists in becoming superior to the ills of life, in whatever shape they may challenge us to the combat.' The ceremony of 'crossing the line' was performed; and Napoleon, who appeared not, sent his contribution to Neptune and Amphitrite, while Bertrand, &c., the children, and domestics, received with cheerfulness their share of the god's ablutions. I recur once more to Napoleon. He has an uncommon face; large, full, and pale, but not sickly. In conversation, the muscles suffer little or no exertion: with the exception of those in the immediate vicinity of the mouth, the whole seemed fixed, and the forehead perfectly smooth. When he wishes to enforce a question, he sometimes employs his hand, but that alone; and were I describing a *petit maître*, I might attribute the display to its uncommon handsomeness. I have never observed, when laughter has prevailed around him, that he has caught the infection. The interesting children on board, who amuse every body else, do not attract his attention. There is a large good-tempered Newfoundland dog, which is a frequent and rather rude playfellow of these urchins; and in a situation where no active entertainments are exhibited, the interludes of these performers afford no small degree of amusement to those around them. But they have never won a smile, that I have observed, from the ex-imperial spectator.

The sensation excited in the little colony of St. Helena on the arrival of Napoleon, may be more easily imagined than described. He did not leave his cabin for a full hour after

the ship had anchored in the bay; however, when the deck became clear, he made his appearance, and looked as any other man would look at a place which he beheld for the first time. Indeed I saw no change in his placid countenance, nor did I hear of his having uttered a single peevish expression throughout the voyage: the ladies indeed discovered some distress on the first view of their rocky cage, but their general conduct on the occasion displayed a degree of self-possession which was not expected of them. After sunset on the 17th of October, 1815, when the inhabitants of the only town in the island, James Town, wearied out in waiting for the spectacle of Buonaparte's landing, had retired to their homes, Napoleon, according to the wish he had expressed, passed unobserved to the house whereat he was to sleep on the first night. Early on the next morning he ascended the mountain on horseback, accompanied by sir George Cockburn, to Longwood, a spot which was to be his residence; but stopping on his way down again at the Briars, the abode of Mr. Balcombe, a respectable merchant, he was so pleased with its situation, that he expressed a wish to live there, if possible, until Longwood should be ready for his reception. On his removal to the latter place, certain limits were allowed him for exercise, around which a cordon of sentinels was stationed. While he continued within the circle, he experienced no additional vigilance; but when he ventured beyond, an officer was on duty to attend him.

'On the arrival of a ship from England, Napoleon desired to see me. 'What is the news from France?' was one of his first questions. I told him that it related to marshal Ney. 'What,' said he, 'Ney has been sentenced to be shot.' I replied it is even so: the marshal declared he had been deceived by you, and that the proclamation which he was accused of writing was formed by general Bertrand.' The latter, who was present, quietly observed that

Ney had a right to save himself by a fabrication if he could; while Napoleon thoughtfully exclaimed, 'Ney was a brave man.' I mentioned that it was believed an insurrection would take place in Paris, in the event of Ney's execution. 'An insurrection!' said Napoleon, with a kind of contemptuous calmness, 'pooh! get the troops under arms!'

'I am now about to vary the scene. Napoleon, when he takes his exercise on horseback, generally bends his way through a deep ravine, luxuriantly covered with vegetation, and, from its loneliness, called by himself 'the valley of silence.' Here he stopped the other day at a farmer's door, and was met by master Legg, the tenant of the mansion, a plain honest countryman, and invited into the house. He accordingly alighted, and, accompanied by count Las Casas, entered, took a seat, and began his interrogatories. 'Have you a wife?'—'Yes, please you, emperor.' 'Have you any children?'—'Six.' 'How much land have you got?'—'A hundred acres, sir emperor.' 'All capable of being cultivated?'—'No, not one-half.' 'What profit does it bring you?'—'Not a great deal, but it is much improved since you, Mr. Emperor, came amongst us.' 'Aye, how do you make that out?'—'Why, you must know, sir emperor, we do not grow corn in this here island; and our green vegetables require a ready market. We have generally had to wait for the arrival of a fleet; and then, rat'em, they'd sometimes all spoil: but now, sir general, we have a prime sale for every article.' 'Where is your wife?'—'Dang it, and please you, I believe she is scared; for I see my children have all run out.' 'Send for them, and let me be introduced. Pray have you any good water?'—'Yes, Mr. Emperor, and wine too, such as is to be had from the Cape.' The good woman's alarm had by this time subsided, and she was persuaded by her husband to make her appearance, and entered with every mark of respect, and some

astonishment. Napoleon, Las Casas, the farmer, and his wife, forming a *partie quaruée*, sat down to four glasses of Cape wine; and, when they were emptied, the visit concluded. The good man and his family had been placed so much at their ease by the courteous demeanour of their unexpected guests, that their subsequent visits laid them under no restraint; and even the little children used frequently to express their wishes by inquiring of their mother, 'When will Boney come and see us again?'

Enough has been extracted from Mr. Warden's letters, to show that Napoleon for some time passed his exile as cheerfully as could be expected from his character and previous habits. The following account of a dinner-party given by the emperor, must close our anecdotal account. 'I was sitting one morning,' records the lady of an officer of the 53d, then stationed at St. Helena, 'in our tent at Deadwood Camp, when the countess Bertrand called, with an invitation from the emperor for me to dine that day with him at Longwood-house. 'The emperor,' said the countess, 'will invite your husband on another day; for he makes it a rule never to invite husband and wife together. So you can, if you wish, go with me and the grand mareschal Bertrand.' I replied, I should be happy to accept the invitation, provided my husband shall have no objection to it. 'What!' said the countess, 'are the English wives in such subjection, that they cannot accept an invitation, even from an emperor, without leave of their husbands?' 'Yes,' replied I, 'nor can I give an answer until mine comes home.' At this reply she looked surprised, and rather offended, but soon resumed her amiable manner.

'Buonaparte's carriage and four came to fetch general and countess Bertrand from Hutt's-gate, where they then resided, and they called for me. When we arrived at Longwood, we found count and countess Montholon, baron Gourgaud, count Las

Casas, and sir George Bingham, assembled in the drawing-room. Buonaparte soon after entered, and sat down at the chess-table; for he always played a game before dinner. He asked me to play with him, which I declined, saying I was a bad player. He then asked me if I knew back-gammon. 'You must teach me,' said he, 'for I know but little of the game.' So down we sat. I was in considerable agitation at the idea of giving instruction to the great conqueror. But luckily, as soon as he had placed the back-gammon men, a servant entered, saying, 'Le diner de sa majesté est servi.' Madame Bertrand then whispered to me, 'You are to sit in the empress's seat: it has been so ordered.' (This is a seat left vacant on ordinary occasions, on the right hand of Napoleon.) I accordingly was led to it by the grand mareschal. The instant Buonaparte was seated, a servant came behind, and presented him with a glass of wine, which he drank off before he began to eat,—his invariable custom. The dinner was on superb gold and silver plate, and beautiful china; the meat was served on side-tables by several smart servants, in magnificent liveries of green and gold; and there was a vast variety of vegetables, cooked in the most delicate manner. Buonaparte ate of a number of dishes with great appetite; he several times offered things to me—an honour, I was told, by Las Casas, he rarely condescended to do even to queens. He talked a great deal to me; his conversation was chiefly in questions respecting India, and the manners and dress of the natives there; I must not forget to inform my female friends that he admired my dress, which consisted of a silver worked muslin in stripes. He asked me how much I gave a yard for it in India. He also admired, or pretended to admire, my bracelets, which were of beautiful pearls. Be that as it may, I believed it all, and began to feel tolerably conceited and much at my ease. 'Your English gentlemen,' said he, 'sit an intolerable time

at dinner, and afterwards drink for hours together, when the ladies have left them. As for me, I never allow more than twenty minutes for dinner, and five minutes additional for general Bertrand, who is very fond of bon-bons.' Saying this, he started up, and we all followed him into the drawing-room; when the generals, each taking a *chapeau-bras* under his arm, formed a circle round him, all continuing standing. Coffee was presently brought; and the cups and saucers were the most splendidly beautiful I ever beheld. I admired the china; upon which Buonaparte took a cup and saucer to the light, to point out their beauties. Each saucer contained a portrait of some Egyptian chief, and each cup some landscape of Egypt. 'This set of china,' said he, 'was given me by the city of Paris, after my return from Egypt.' He then requested me to sing; and I sang a few Italian airs. The countess Montholon next sang some little French songs, and he joined in humming the tunes. A party of *reversis* was then formed for him by his generals; and I sat down to a round-game with the two countesses and sir G. Bingham. Napoleon was now in high spirits; he was winning, and he always liked to win at cards; and he began to sing merry French songs. About ten o'clock he suddenly rose; and making a sliding bow to us all, he retired to his private apartments, attended by count Las Casas.'

The remainder of this extraordinary man's life was passed in conversations with his officers on past events, plans, not to say plots, for the future, in receiving the visits of persons of respectability who touched at the island, and in squabbles with the governor sir Hudson Lowe, who had the unenviable task of being his gaoler. It was in 1820, that from not taking regular exercise out of doors, his health began visibly to decline: he would not conform to the governor's order *to be watched*, nor would he show himself, as required,

once in the twenty-four hours, to one of his guards; and it was soon evident that a formidable disease was attacking his stomach. He even refused to be relieved by medicines: to his physician he said, 'Doctor, no physicking; we are a machine made to live; do not counteract the living principle—let it alone—leave it the liberty of self-defence—it will do better than your drugs.' With his health, his mind sank also. Some fishes in a pond in the garden at Longwood had attracted his notice: they sickened and died. 'Every thing I love,' said Napoleon, 'every thing that belongs to *me*, is stricken. Heaven and mankind unite to afflict me.' Fits of long silence and of profound melancholy were now frequent. 'In those days,' he once said aloud in a reverie, 'in those days I was Napoleon. Now I am nothing. My strength, my faculties, forsake me—I no longer live.' Another physician was called in (April 1821) but he also was heard in vain: 'Quod scriptum, scriptum,' once more answered he; 'our hour is marked, and no one can claim a moment of life beyond what fate has predestined.' While drawing up his will, he said, 'he knew he had a schirrus of the pylorus—the physicians of Montpellier prophesied it would be hereditary in our family—my father died of it!' He then gave directions to the priest, Vignali, as to his body lying in state by torchlight, and observed, 'I am neither an atheist nor a rationalist; I believe in God, and am of the religion of my father. I was born a catholic, and will fulfil all the duties of that church, and receive the assistance which she administers.' The last sacraments were therefore administered to him, after which he fell into a stupor. On the 4th of May the island was swept by a tremendous storm, which tore up all the trees about Longwood. The 5th was another day of tempests: and at about six in the evening of that day, Napoleon, having pronounced the words 'tête d'armée!' passed for ever from

the dreams of battle. On dissection, it was found that a cancerous ulcer occupied nearly the whole stomach.

Napoleon was buried on the 8th, after lying in state, in a grave prepared among some weeping willows, beside a fountain, where his favourite evening-seat had been. The pall spread over his coffin was the military cloak he wore at Marengo: his household, the governor, the admiral, and all the civil and military authorities, attended him to the tomb; and the road not being passable for carriages, a party of English grenadiers bore the body. The burial service was read by Vignali; while the rite was performing, the admiral's ship fired minute guns; and three volleys were given from fifteen cannon, as the coffin descended into the grave.

The character of Napoleon, to be fairly estimated, must be discussed and drawn half a century from his day. Suffice it to say, in conclusion, that the last four years of his struggle alone, cost Europe *six millions* of human lives.

FREDERICK WILLIAM, DUKE OF BRUNSWICK AND OELS (1771—1815), fourth and youngest son of duke Charles William Ferdinand, was educated under private tutors at Lausanne, and early entered the Prussian army. He was twice wounded in France, 1792; after the peace of Basle, he obtained a regiment; and he married, in 1804, the amiable and beautiful princess Mary of Baden, by whom he had two sons, Charles and William. In 1805 he succeeded his uncle as duke of Oëls and Bernstadt. Upon the death of his father at Jena, 1806, and the inhuman conduct of Napoleon on that occasion, duke Frederick took part in the war with France, with all the ardour which the oppression of Germany and his father's unhappy fate inspired; and he was taken prisoner with Blücher at Lübeck. His eldest brother, the hereditary duke, dying without issue, 1806, and his two unmarried brothers being unable to reign, (one of

them through blindness), he would have succeeded his father in the government, had not Napoleon at Tilsit willed it otherwise. From that time the duke lived in retirement at Bruchsal, in Baden, until the loss of his beloved consort in 1808, again turned his attention to the camp; whereon he raised a free corps of Jägers in Bohemia, in aid of the emperor of Austria. The occupation of Napoleon's best armies in Spain induced the emperor, who was anxious to escape from French domination, to declare war against Buonaparte in the spring of 1809. Buonaparte, however, entered Vienna in May; and, on the 6th of July, destroyed the strength of Austria in the decisive battle of Wagram. By a treaty hereupon signed, Austria was deprived of a large extent of territory, and compelled to abstain from all intercourse with England; while it was agreed that Napoleon should espouse the daughter of his enemy.

The duke of Brunswick had already engaged in the contest with France, as an ally of the emperor, and had defeated, with his gallant corps, a body of 12,000 men under marshal Junot, who with Jerome Buonaparte, king of Westphalia, was ravaging the unprotected inhabitants of Saxony; but when the news of the armistice between France and Austria reached him, he determined to fight his way to England, where he was sure of protection. And here it must be stated that, when the duke's father had received his death-wound at Jena, Napoleon had refused his request to enter Brunswick, and die in his own bed. 'Qu'il s'en aille en Angleterre, y chercher son salut:—je veux l'écraser lui et toute sa famille!' was the note he wrote to the party waiting his orders at Brunswick. The young duke, bearing this inhuman proceeding in mind, arrayed his followers in mourning habiliments; as a member of the order of the Tête Morte of Württemberg, he placed the death's head and cross-bones (its device) upon

their caps in front, and substituted flowing black horse-hair for the gayer feather; and till the death of Napoleon, this gloomy uniform was commanded to be used. Though deserted, on the arrival of the news alluded to, by all his cavalry officers, save ten of the youngest, the duke set his troops in motion; and notwithstanding the opposition he met with at Leipsic, Halle, and other points, arrived with his corps unbroken at the gates of Halberstadt. This town being possessed by 3000 Westphalian soldiers, the duke assaulted it, and after a severe contest gained possession, taking prisoner count Wellingerode, the bosom friend of king Jerome, with all his officers, and 1600 men.

On the 31st of July, the duke arrived at Brunswick; and it was an affecting event to see him, after an absence of several years, once more, though as it were by stealth, in the midst of his affectionate people. The danger and fear of incurring the punishment of death, were not sufficient to restrain the marks of attachment which all were eager to show him; and every countenance expressed the sentiments which good citizens entertain towards their legitimate sovereign. On the following morning intelligence arrived, that general Reubell's corps was approaching from Celle, with a view of closing the road to Cuxhaven against the Black Legion; and that general Gratien, with a force of Saxons, was following close in its rear. The danger of being overpowered induced the duke to venture a battle; and at three in the afternoon he advanced against Reubell, and drove him back upon Celle. Notwithstanding this advantage, sixteen Brunswick officers, intimidated by reports of the strength of the enemy in the rear, asked for their discharge; and the duke having freely complied, gave up his intention of pursuing the enemy. But in order to deceive them, a detachment of fifty cavalry was sent to press on their rear-guard; so that the Saxons, believing the whole force of the Brun-

wickers to be approaching, in the hurry of their consequent retreat, left behind them ten waggons and the wounded, together with a note from the commander, recommending the latter to the protection of the black troop, the generosity of whose chieftain he complimented in the highest strain.

The duke now made the best of his way to Hanover; and on entering the city, he took prisoners a battalion of the Westphalian infantry, and several detachments of Dutch and French, besides capturing four cannon, and a large quantity of military stores. At Bremen he met with similar success, the authorities fleeing, and 600 soldiers laying down their arms. The Jägers were instantly sent to Bracke, to embark in such vessels as they could find; and at length, after seeing all his faithful followers safely on board, the duke himself took ship on the 7th of August. A considerable force of Westphalians harassed the Brunswickers at the moment of their departure, and the Danish batteries, by which the vessels had to pass, fired upon them as they approached the land by tacking; but they eventually got clear of their enemies, and on the 8th, an English squadron under lord George Stuart, sent in search of them by king George, took them all speedily on board. In a few days after, the gallant little party reached the British shores, where they were received with the greatest joy; and being taken into the British service in the peninsula, they there acquired fresh reputation.

On the decline of Napoleon's fortunes, 1813, the duke was recalled to Brunswick, and welcomed with all the enthusiasm which his sufferings and noble conduct had inspired; but though sincerely desirous of promoting the welfare of his subjects—being one of the most liberal and high-minded princes of his age—he was unable to fulfil their expectations. Finding nothing to support him in the con-

stitution of his country, which had been completely changed by the French occupation, and adopting the resolution to effect at once those reforms which a cool judgment would work out by degrees and with patience, however salutary they might seem, or distinctly they might be called for,—he lost the affections of a large portion of his people. Complaints were made of his unwieldy military establishment; the finances were alleged to be ill-managed; and perhaps the sudden change in French affairs alone prevented the outbreak of that revolution in his state, which burst forth upon his son with such severity. The return of Napoleon from Elba, probable as that issue had originally appeared to Frederick William, drew off from domestic anxieties the attention of his restless subjects; who, still sore with French wounds, relished little the notion of a second visit from their taskmasters. To frustrate as far as possible the designs of the enslaver of nations, to defend that liberty which they had obtained so recently, and so distinctly against their hopes, the Brunswickers to a man thought of nothing now but arming against the French. 'The gallant duke, as might be expected, caught the flame; but he did not take advantage of his subjects' fears, and (as other rulers often have done) seize the glowing moment to induce a compliance with his wishes. No: though his life of labour for his country was disregarded, and his views for its happiness had been treated as visionary, he remembered alone his father's death, and he resolved to avenge it. He had some little ambition to hope for a leading command in the coming contest—to be entrusted, in fact, with one of the two grand divisions of the British army; but he saw that could not be granted him, and at length forgot his disappointment. He anticipated his own fall; and in that spirit he went forth at the head of his devoted Jägers, to seek the enemy of his house—the man who had insulted the very corpse of his parent.'

Brussels being the head-quarters of the British forces, to which he still purposed to attach his troops, he repaired to that city in the early part of June 1815; and while waiting there with his allies, he accepted the invitation of the duke of Richmond to a grand ball at his grace's residence on the 15th. In the interval between the sending forth of the cards and the appointed evening, the French had quietly advanced upon the Netherlands, were already at a comparatively short distance from Brussels, and had even slightly conflicted at Thuin. The duke of Wellington, however, when aware of the fact, out of consideration for the citizens, proposed that the ball should be attended by the military invited, as if nothing were expected; and every precaution having been taken by the troops, the gay assembly accordingly took place. The duke of Brunswick attended among the rest; but, aware of the proximity of the enemy, he quitted the ball-room at midnight, to arm for the coming day's fatal conflict. At two o'clock on the morning of the 16th, his corps being assembled, he advanced towards Quatre Bras; but fresh orders coming to him from the duke of Wellington, he halted at the nearest hamlet. While here, he expressed great anxiety respecting his two children at Brunswick, having despatched a messenger thither for their preceptor, the rev. Dr. Prince, to whom he was desirous of personally communicating his wishes, in the event of his fall in action. That gentleman, however, from the early advance of the French, was not enabled to reach Brussels in time; and, an order from the duke of Wellington to march arriving, his serene highness delayed no longer to put himself at the head of his gallant Jägers.

The French had been firing for some hours upon the British outposts, and there had been a slight skirmish before his arrival; so that, having speedily formed in battle array, he

advanced upon the enemy. After an obstinate engagement of three hours, the enemy gave way, and a partial pursuit of them commenced by the Brunswickers. The duke, at the moment that the rout commenced, was being congratulated by some of the officers of his staff, and was in the act of taking a handkerchief from the breast of his coat, to wipe away the perspiration that poured from his head and face, the result of his long exertion, when a bullet, aimed it was thought by a French guerilla from a neighbouring hedge—for the fight had ceased—struck and shattered his right wrist, and passing through his body, came out under his left shoulder. He did not live five minutes after receiving the fatal shot. Once he attempted to speak, but could only whisper the name of Olfermann, the colonel of the corps; and once he made a sign to the men who were carrying him off the field, that they would raise his head a little higher. Before the bearers could gain a resting-place for the body, its noble spirit had fled. Idolized as the duke had been by his faithful Jagers, they put the corpse upon the ground, and 'all unused to weep' as they were, wept aloud! The shouts of 'The enemy is coming!' at length roused the bearers from their grief; and they conveyed the body with all speed to the palace of Lacken, whence it was removed by easy stages to Brunswick, for interment.

Lord Byron has too vividly commemorated the last moments of the hero, to pass his description unnoticed:

There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her beauty and her chivalry; and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave
men:

A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes look'd love to eyes which spake
again,

And all went merry as a marriage bell.
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like
a rising knell!

Did ye not hear it!—No; 'twas but the wind,
Or the car rattling o'er the stony street;
On with the dance! let joy be unconfin'd,

No sleep till morn, when Youth and Pleasure meet
To chase the glowing hours with flying feet.
But, hark! that heavy sound breaks in once
more,
As if the clouds its echo would repeat;
And nearer, clearer, deadlier, than before;
Arm! arm! it is—it is—the cannon's opening
roar!
Within a windowed niche of that high hall
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain; he did
hear
That sound the first amidst the festival,
And caught its tone with death's prophetic
car;
And when they smiled because he deem'd it
near,
His heart more truly knew that peal too
well
Which stretch'd his father on a bloody bier,—
And rous'd the vengeance blood alone could
quell:
He rush'd into the field, and foremost fighting
fell.

Duke Frederick William was, in his 45th year, and was succeeded by his eldest son, prince Charles. The Black Jägers remained attached to the British army, and performed their last duty, two days after, on the field of Waterloo. The great foe of their late chieftain there terminating his political existence, they were subsequently disbanded, to adopt the original Prussian costume of the Brunswick troops. (See *Expulsion of the Duke of Brunswick*.)

HORATIO NELSON (1758—1805) was born at Burnham Thorpe, Norfolk, of which parish his father was rector, and was in early life placed on board his uncle's ship, though of very delicate stature and health. 'What,' said captain Suckling, when he heard of his wish to go to sea, 'what has poor Horatio done, that he, above all the rest, should be sent to rough it at sea?' After various voyages in merchant-vessels, he was raised to the rank of post-captain; and he had command of different ships, when our West India settlements were threatened by the French. His first rise was occasioned by the admiral of his station observing him always more prompt and regular in the performance of trifling duties than young men are usually found; a strong proof of his practice of a maxim which was always in his mouth when he rose to eminence. 'Take time

by the forelock, my boys!' was his constant advice to midshipmen, 'and if the time is to be four in the morning, be at your post at a quarter before—let *a quarter before* be your motto.' He was called from America at the breaking out of the French revolution, to aid in the Mediterranean; and there he assisted at the taking of Toulon, and superintended the landing of the troops at Bastia. Although he lost an eye at the siege of Calvi, his services were wholly overlooked, as he had acted only under the orders of sir Charles Stuart. For his conduct off Cape St. Vincent, 1797, in which action he forced two large Spanish frigates to strike their flags, he was made rear-admiral of the blue. His next service was an attack on the town of Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe; in which he received a shot through the right elbow, as he was stepping from the boat, in consequence of which his arm was obliged to be amputated, and he received a pension of 1000*l*.

In April, 1798, admiral Nelson was sent to the Mediterranean, to watch the progress of the armament at Toulon; and when the French fleet, which conveyed Buonaparte to Egypt, had escaped his vigilance, he soon after discovered it moored in the bay of Aboukir, and by a well-executed manœuvre, obliged it to come to action. He obtained a most signal victory; all the French ships but two being taken or destroyed. During the severity of the contest, Nelson received a wound in the head; and the great effusion of blood occasioned an apprehension that the injury was mortal. The generous commander, however, would only be assisted in his turn by the surgeon; and the joy of the wounded men, and of the whole crew, when they heard that the hurt was superficial, gave him deeper pleasure than did the unexpected assurance that his life was in no danger. The surgeon requested him to remain quiet; but when a cry was heard that the enemy's ship *Orient* (the admiral's)

was on fire, he appeared on the quarterdeck, and immediately gave orders that boats should be sent to her relief. It was soon after nine that the fire, from some accidental cause, broke out. The admiral, Brueys, after being three times wounded, had been, by a fourth shot, severed almost in two. By the prodigious light of this conflagration, the situation of the two fleets could be clearly perceived; and at ten, the ship, while its defenders were firing with great vigour, blew up, with a shock that was felt to the very bottom of every vessel. The tremendous explosion was followed by a stillness not less awful: the firing immediately ceased on both sides; and the first sound which broke the silence, was the dash of shattered masts and yards, falling into the water from the vast height to which they had been forced. Only seventy out of many hundreds of the *Orient's* crew were saved, and those by the English boats. Nelson would not call the issue of this memorable conflict of the Nile a victory, but a *conquest*; and he received for the achievement the title of baron Nelson, and a pension of 2000*l*.

The admiral's next service was the restoration of the king of the Sicilies, whose subjects had joined the French against him; but in effecting this, he stained his character by sanctioning the trial and hanging of the aged prince Caraccioli, who had been trepanned, in his alarm, to join the French, when at the head of the Sicilian marine. He had been forty years a faithful subject; and Nelson is supposed to have been influenced by lady Hamilton, wife of the English ambassador, his attachment to whom occasioned his separation from lady Nelson on his return to England. Meanwhile the king of Sicily bestowed on his deliverer the estate of Bronte (*thunder*), worth 3000*l*. a year, with a dukedom; and as Mr. Southey, his excellent biographer, observes, the sailors were no less pleased with their commander's appropriate title of *duke of thunder*, than

Nelson himself was with the simple offering of the Greeks of Zante. They sent him, out of gratitude for the security which that part of Greece had obtained by his reduction of Sicily, a gold-headed sword, together with a truncheon, set round with all the diamonds the island could furnish, in a single row.

In 1801 lord Nelson was employed on the expedition to Copenhagen, under sir Hyde Parker; in which he displayed his accustomed gallantry, and effected the destruction of the Danish ships and batteries. On his return home he was created a viscount, and his honours were made hereditary in his family, even in the female line. When hostilities recommenced after the peace of Amiens, he was appointed to command the fleet in the Mediterranean, and for nearly two years was engaged in the blockade of Toulon. In spite of his vigilance, the French fleet got out of port, March 30th, 1805, and being joined by a Spanish squadron from Cadiz, sailed to the West Indies. Thither Nelson pursued them, and tracked them back to Europe; and after passing some weeks in the shelter of Cadiz harbour, the French, commanded by Villeneuve, and the Spaniards by Gravina, ventured forth again, and on the 21st of October came up with the English squadron off Cape Trafalgar. Hereupon an engagement took place, which was followed by a most glorious victory to the British, though at the vast expense of their commander's life. Nelson's ship was the *Victory*; and it had been part of his prayer that the British fleet might be distinguished by humanity in the victory which he expected. Setting an example himself, he twice gave orders to cease firing upon the *Redoutable*, supposing that she had struck, because her great guns were silent; for, as she carried no flag, there was no means of instantly ascertaining the fact. From this ship, which he had thus twice spared, he received his death. A ball, fired from her mizen-top, struck the epaulet on

his left shoulder, and he fell upon his face. Faint as he was, he observed, as they were carrying him below, that the tiller ropes, which had been shot away, were not replaced, and ordered new ones immediately to be rove; then, that he might not be seen by the crew, covered his face and his stars with his handkerchief. Had he but earlier concealed his badges of honour, England perhaps would not have had cause to receive with sorrow the news of the battle of Trafalgar. It was soon found that his wound was mortal. This, however, was concealed from all except captain Hardy, the chaplain, and the medical attendants; and all that could be done was to fan him with paper, and frequently to give him lemonade to alleviate his thirst. Though in great pain, he expressed much anxiety for the event of the action; and as often as the crew of the *Victory* hurraed for the striking of a ship, a visible expression of joy marked the countenance of the dying hero. More than an hour elapsed from the time when Nelson received his wound, before Hardy could come to him. They shook hands in silence; Hardy in vain struggling to suppress the feelings of that painful moment. 'Well, Hardy,' said Nelson, 'how goes the day with us?' 'Very well,' replied Hardy, 'ten ships have struck, but five of the van have tacked, and show an intention to bear down upon the *Victory*. I have called two or three of our fresh ships round, and have no doubt of giving them a drubbing.' 'I hope,' said Nelson, 'none of our ships have struck?' Hardy answered, 'There is no fear of that.' Then, and not till then, Nelson spoke of himself. 'I am a dead man, Hardy; I am going fast; it will be all over with me soon. Come nearer to me. Let my dear lady Hamilton have my hair, and all other things belonging to me.' Hardy observed, that he hoped Mr. Beatty could yet hold out some prospect of life. 'Oh no!' he replied, 'it is impossible. My back is shot

through. Beatty will tell you so.' Captain Hardy then shook hands with him, and with a heart almost bursting, hastened upon deck; but returning after a while, he congratulated the dying commander on having gained a complete victory, after capturing fifteen of the enemy. 'That's well,' cried Nelson, 'but I bargained for twenty.' He then desired Hardy to anchor; but upon being told that the command of the fleet had devolved upon admiral Collingwood, 'Not while I am alive!' exclaimed Nelson. Collingwood, however, took the command, and in this critical situation evinced a degree of promptitude and nautical skill, which tended greatly to the preservation of the captured vessels, and proved his judgment as a commander. (For this valuable service he was afterwards promoted to a barony, and died, aged 62, 1810, as in his memoir.) The wounded hero now requested that his body might be conveyed to his parents—not thrown overboard,—and stated that he left lady Hamilton and his daughter, Horatia, as a legacy to his country. His articulation soon after became difficult, but he was distinctly heard to say, 'Thank God, I have done my duty.' These words he repeatedly pronounced, and were the last which he uttered. This illustrious man's death, in the service of his country, occurred in his 48th year, October 21, 1805.

It was long affirmed that the man who had given the fatal wound from the Redoubtable, did not live to boast what he had done. An old quartermaster (as the tale went) had seen him fire, and calling out, 'That's he—that's he,' two midshipmen aimed at him. When they took possession of the prize, they went into the mizen-top, and found him dead; with one ball through his head, and another through his breast. But there is no truth whatever in the story. All the honours which a great country could bestow were heaped upon the memory of Nelson. His brother was made an earl, with a

grant of 6000*l.* a year; 10,000*l.* were voted to each of his sisters, and 100,000*l.* for the purchase of an estate. So perfectly had the hero performed his part, that the fleets of the enemy were not merely defeated, but destroyed: new navies must be built, and a new race of seamen reared for them, before the possibility of invading our shores could again be contemplated. The funeral of the first of naval commanders was made a national affair, and took place at St. Paul's, with a procession the most magnificent in the memory of man.

WILLIAM PITT (1759—1806), second son of the great lord Chatham, completed his education at Pembroke hall, Cambridge, under Dr. Pretzman, afterwards bishop of Winchester. After making the usual continental tour, he entered at Lincoln's-inn, was called to the bar, 1780, and when he had attended the western circuit once or twice, sat in parliament for Appleby. His first speech was in support of Mr. Burke's reform of finance; and as he also sided with the party wishing for a reform of parliament, he acted as a delegate in one of the assemblies held in Westminster for the promotion of that measure. On the dissolution of lord Rockingham's administration, and the formation of lord Shelburne's, he became chancellor of the exchequer, though only 23, 1782. The general peace which followed, however, was made the ground of censure by a strong opposition; and the cabinet again gave way to the coalition of Fox and North, which, in its turn, through the failure of Mr. Fox's India Bill, restored Mr. Pitt to office, in the far higher capacity of prime minister, 1783, when not yet 24! A fresh parliament, 1786, gave the new minister full power, as the tories, who were now mainly excluded, had hitherto opposed his liberal views; and Mr. Pitt instantly passed his India Bill, establishing the board of control; which was followed by the ingenious, but, as to direct consequences, delu-

sive scheme of a sinking-fund to liquidate the public debt. A commercial treaty with France followed in 1787; and Mr. Pitt then made vigorous efforts to put down both Russian and Spanish aggrandisement, avoiding, however, a war. With the same firmness he supported the Stadtholder against the machinations of France. In 1788, he evinced his determination to support the constitution, by resisting the doctrine of the opposition, 'That the regency, during the king's indisposition, devolved upon the prince of Wales by right;' maintaining, with great good sense, that it lay in the two remaining branches of the legislature to fill up the office as they should think proper, though admitting that the prince could not be passed over, in nominating to this post. By the adoption of this principle, he was enabled to pass a bill greatly restricting the regent's power, which the king's recovery rendered unnecessary. The French revolution now broke out, and, as if by magic influence, destroyed the previous bearing of party; the English nation being suddenly and simply divided into the opponents and supporters of French principles. Thus, while a war against anarchy was declared on the one side, with the premier at the head, the friends of rational amelioration, on the other, found themselves unavoidably confounded with a great mass of ignorant and heated characters, who espoused some of the wildest and most visionary notions of the innovators of France. Under this state of things, a vigilant eye and a steady hand were obviously necessary, to steer the vessel of state amid a conflict of opinions so violent and alarming; and the manner in which Mr. Pitt exercised the almost unlimited power he possessed, can scarcely be regarded by any class of men but with admiration. All sober minds must admit that the temporary sacrifices his measures involved—such as restrictions upon personal liberty, the dissemination of high principles of government, and

the abandonment of all projects of home reform—saved the country; and that Mr. Pitt had the nation with him at the commencement of hostilities with France, is sufficiently certain. In the conduct of the ensuing war, fearfully as it at first went against us, his splendid abilities shone forth. England's prime minister became the arbiter of nations; in every corner of the habitable globe did his councils either positively direct, or considerably influence the measures of the throne; and his history is therefore the history of all the civilized kingdoms of the world. But to return to his home operations. The suspension of cash payments in 1797, the necessity of attending to home defence, the alarming mutiny in the fleet, and the accumulation of the public burdens, were alleviated by a commercial monopoly, that, assisted by the temporary operation of an unlimited paper-issue, materially modified consequences, both in form and in fact. Soon after the important measure of the Irish union had been effected, 1800, by Mr. Pitt, (whose sole object in which was the extension of good government to Ireland,) the hopeless aspect of the war with France began to turn the national attention towards peace; and Mr. Pitt, sensible that it never could be accomplished on the high terms of his councils, (which were privately known to admit further concession to the Irish catholics), resigned his post, 1801, carrying with him into retirement the esteem of a strong and powerful party, who hailed him as 'the pilot who had weathered the storm.' The peace of Amiens succeeded; and the Addington administration, which concluded it, Mr. Pitt supported for a time, and then joined the opposition, and spoke on the same side with his old antagonist Mr. Fox. The new minister, who had renewed the war, unable to maintain his ground, resigned; and in 1804, Mr. Pitt once more resumed his post at the treasury. Returning to power as war-minister, he exerted

all the energy of his character to render the arduous contest successful; and he found means to engage the two great military powers, Russia and Austria, in a new confederacy, which was however dissolved by the battle of Austerlitz. Mr. Pitt's health had been sensibly declining for some time; his constitution, weakened by an hereditary gout, and injured by a too liberal use of wine, often mingled with laudanum by way of stimulant, was in a most shattered condition; and the intelligence of Napoleon's success, like the last overwhelming wave of the defenceless wreck, extinguished for ever the energies of him whose ambition would have raised his country high above all others; and whose sole earthly object was her glory. He expired at his house at Putney, January the 23d, 1806, aged 47; and the last words which quivered on the lips of the dying patriot, were, 'Oh! my country!' That Mr. Pitt was eminently fitted for his elevated station is abundantly evident. He was steady to his principles, and must not be charged with a love of expediency because he maintained the opinion on which he acted, formed as it was after mature deliberation, against all obstacles to the end: his plans were invariably magnanimous, extensive, and noble. In devising the good of England, he went farther than the present moment, and beyond the consideration of her exclusive welfare: he legislated for ages to come, and laboured to bring (under God) ultimate prosperity, not only upon his own native land, but upon Europe and the world.

CHARLES JAMES FOX (1748—1806), second son of Henry, first lord Holland, was educated at Eton, and Hertford college, Oxford; and as he displayed great abilities, his father procured him a seat for the borough of Midhurst, 1768, before he was of legal age. In 1770 he was made a lord of the Admiralty, and soon after a commissioner of the Treasury. As a tory he spoke and voted against

Wilkes; but having, on some unknown ground, offended lord North, he was, after being a supporter of his administration for six years, so cavalierly ejected, that he changed politics, and became leader of the opposition. During the American war, 1775 to 1782, he was the antagonist of the ministry; and on the removal of lord North, he was made secretary of state. The death of lord Rockingham dissolved the new cabinet; and Mr. Fox, after some time opposing the measures of lord Shelburne, the next minister, returned to power by his well-known coalition with lord North. This event is regarded as a stigma in his political life; as, in the ardour of his zeal, he had often declared he would employ all his powers to bring lord North to the scaffold for the flagitiousness of his public life. The memorable India-bill brought on the downfall of the coalition, 1783, and the elevation of Mr. Pitt to the helm of the state. The French revolution was an event which Fox hailed as the harbinger of freedom, happiness, and prosperity to all Europe; but he lived to witness and own the fallacy of his belief. Deserted by some of his associates, who regarded his systematical opposition as disloyal, he formed the design of withdrawing from his attendance in parliament, except on constitutional occasions; and in his addresses at the Crown and Anchor tavern (substitutes for his senatorial services), he gave offence to the ministry, and his name was struck from the list of privy councillors. In 1803 he returned to his seat, and on the death of Mr. Pitt, 1806, was drawn from opposition, and, by the advice of lord Grenville, made secretary for foreign affairs. In this situation he had the opportunity of witnessing the chicane and perfidy of the French government; and he experienced how ill-calculated for the happiness and independence of Europe was the political system of that people, whose extravagancies and crimes had been once honoured as the

ebullitions of freemen. Having lived to feel the disappointment which a generous mind must experience in a diplomatic intercourse, conducted on the one part with frankness and sincerity, and on the other with artifice and duplicity, this illustrious statesman fell a prey to the insurmountable attacks of a dropsy, aged 58, 1806, in the same year with his illustrious rival. Highly gifted as an orator and a statesman, Mr. Fox was, in private life, the convivial friend, and the man of integrity and honour. He had been dissipated in youth, and this character necessarily tinged his maturer years; but his faults, as Burke observes, 'were not formed to extinguish the fire of great virtues.'

THE JENKINSONS.—These were father and son, successively earls of Liverpool. *Charles Jenkinson* (1727—1808), eldest son of colonel Jenkinson, who was youngest son of sir Robert, first baronet of the family, was educated at the Charter-house, and University college, Oxford; and by family interest became, after holding other offices, secretary at war, 1778. On the dissolution of lord North's ministry, he joined that portion of it which supported Mr. Pitt, under whose auspices he became president of the board of trade; an office which he held in conjunction with the chancellorship of the duchy of Lancaster, given him 1786; in which year he was created baron Hawkesbury. In 1796 he was made earl of Liverpool, and, as the private adviser of George III., shared in all the obloquy attached to the confidential friends of the Bute administration. Having early devoted his attention to political studies, he became exceedingly conversant with the law of nations, and the principles and details of commerce and political arithmetic; and for his services in these matters, he was rewarded at last with the valuable sinecures of collector of customs in the port of London, and clerk of the Pells in Ireland. He died, aged 81, 1808. His treatise on the coins of the realm is a very valu-

able numismatic work. His son was *Robert Banks Jenkinson* (1770—1828), who was educated at Cheam school, and University college, Oxford. After filling some of the highest offices in the state, he succeeded to his father's title, 1808; and on the assassination of Mr. Perceval, 1812, he became prime minister, and conducted the affairs of the nation, not only to the close of the war with Napoleon, but far into the reign of George IV.—being only compelled to resign by a stroke of paralysis, February, 1827. His death occurred at the age of 58, 1828. The talents of Lord Liverpool were of the business, not of the speculative order, Steady in views, and upright in intention, the candour he ever displayed in debate, and the sensible reasons he advanced for carrying out his plans, caused him to be regarded as a cautious and safe director of the helm; and his general worth being acknowledged, this very justly added strength to the prevailing good opinion which he enjoyed, almost without distinction of party, among his countrymen, to the period of his political decease. To him the church of England is especially indebted, for his judicious appointment of bishops; selecting them as he did, not on account of birth or political bias, but for their spiritual fitness for the sacred office.

MARIE THERESE, PRINCESS DE LAMBALLE, of the royal house of Savoy, was born at Turin, and possessed extraordinary beauty, talents, and virtue. On being left a widow by the death of the duke de Bourbon Penthièvre, she became superintendent of the household to queen Marie Antoinette; on whose flight with Louis to Varennes, she proceeded to England. She hastily returned however to Paris, when she heard of the arrest of the royal family by Drouet; and when the queen was sent to the Temple, she heroically resolved to share her fate. She accompanied her mistress thither, therefore, but was soon after separated from her, and placed

in the prison of La Force ; and on Sept. 3d, 1792, was summoned before her self-constituted judges. When in their presence, she was required to swear that she would *love* liberty and equality, and *hate* the king and the queen ; when she replied, ' I will take the first oath ; the second I cannot, it is not in my heart.' One of the bystanders, wishing to save her, thereupon said, ' Do however swear ;' and there were many connected with the tribunal, who, in like manner, desired to spare her. The majority, however, had resolved on her destruction ; and some one having called out in mockery, ' Let madame be set at liberty !' the princess was attacked on every side by sabres, and stabbed to death. Her body being torn piecemeal, her head, heart, and hands, after being paraded upon pike-heads about the streets, were carried in procession to the Temple, to strike terror into the royal prisoners. The extreme blood-thirstiness of the Parisian mob may be gathered from the fact, that there was nothing in the conduct or character of their victim, which could reasonably have excited their anger. She had been uniformly kind and obliging to her dependants, and had ever displayed moderation in the exercise of that power and influence which she derived from her high situation and connexions. In confirmation of this remark, her character has remained free from reproach amid the storms of the revolution ; and even her cruel murderers and their abettors have shown respect to her memory in various ways. She died in her 44th year.

CUTHBERT COLLINGWOOD (1748—1810) was born at Newcastle-on-Tyne, and entering the navy, rose to be flag-captain on board the *Prince*, admiral Benbow's ship. In 1797 he commanded the *Excellent*, in the action off Cape St. Vincent ; was in 1799 made rear-admiral of the white ; promoted to the red 1801 ; and in 1804 to be vice-admiral of the blue. His most important service was ren-

dered at Trafalgar ; and his conduct on that memorable occasion elicited from Nelson the most encouraging remarks. On the fall of the great leader, the command of the fleet devolved upon him as senior officer ; and to his promptitude and skill was owing the preservation of the numerous captured vessels. He was, after the battle, made vice-admiral of the red, and a peer, by the title of baron Collingwood. He died, while cruising off Minorca in the *Ville de Paris*, 1810, aged 62 ; and his remains were publicly buried at St. Paul's.

In command, lord Collingwood was firm, but mild, most considerate of the comfort and health of his men, and strongly averse from the discipline of flogging. His sailors always called him ' their father.' As a scientific seaman and naval tactician, he had few if any equals ; and in action, his judgment was as cool as his courage was fiery. His mind was enlightened to an astonishing degree, considering the circumstances of his early life and defective education ; and his letters to his wife, on the mode in which he wished his daughters to be brought up, while replete with good sense, afford a charming specimen of his amiable character. We will quote one of these epistles,—family letters giving the closest portrait we can have of any man.

' Ocean, June 16, 1806.—This day, my love, is the anniversary of our marriage, and I wish you many happy returns of it. If ever we have peace, I hope to spend my latter days amid my family, which is the only sort of happiness I can enjoy. After this life of labour, to retire to peace and quietness is all I look for in the world. Should we decide to change the place of our dwelling, our route would, of course, be to the southward of Morpeth ; but then I should be for ever regretting those beautiful views, which are nowhere to be exceeded ; and even the rattling of that old waggon, that used to pass our door at six

o'clock on a winter's morning, had its charms. The fact is, whenever I think how I am to be happy again, my thoughts carry me back to Morpeth; where, out of the fuss and parade of the world, surrounded by those I loved most dearly, and who loved me, I enjoyed as much happiness as my nature is capable of. Many things that I see in the world give me a distaste to the finery of it. The great knaves are not like those poor unfortunates, who, driven perhaps to distress from accidents which they could not prevent, or at least not (having been) educated in principles of honour and honesty, are hanged for some little thievery: while a knave of education and high breeding, who brandishes his honour in the eyes of the world, would rob a state to its ruin. For the first I feel pity and compassion; for the latter abhorrence and contempt—they are the tenfold vicious.

'Have you read?—but, what I am more interested about, is your sister with you? and is she well and happy? Tell her—God bless her!—I wish I were with you, that we might have a good laugh. God bless me! I have scarcely laughed these three years. I am here with a very reduced force, having been obliged to make detachments to all quarters. This leaves me weak, while the Spaniards and French within are daily gaining strength; they have patched and pieced, until now they have a very considerable fleet. Whether they will venture out or not, I do not know; if they come, I have no doubt we shall do an excellent deed; and then I will bring them to England myself. How do the dear girls go on? Do not let them be made fine ladies; but give them a knowledge of the world which they have to live in, that they may take care of themselves when you and I are in Heaven. They must do every thing for themselves; and never read novels—but history, travels, essays, and Shakspeare's plays as often as they please. What they call books for young per-

sons are nonsense. The memory should be strengthened by getting by heart such speeches and noble sentiments from Shakspeare or Roman history, as deserve to be imprinted on the mind. I would have them taught geometry, too, which is, of all sciences, the most entertaining; it expands the mind more to the knowledge of all things in nature, and better teaches to distinguish between truths, and such things as have the appearance of truths, yet are not, than any other. Their education, and the proper cultivation of the sense which God has given them, are the objects on which my happiness most depends. To inspire them with a love of every thing that is honourable and virtuous, though they may be in rags, and to give them a contempt for vanity in embroidery, is the way to make them the darlings of my heart. They should, in reading, never have access to two books at the same time; but when a subject is begun, it should be finished before any thing else is undertaken. How would it enlarge their minds, if they could acquire a sufficient knowledge of mathematics and astronomy, to give them an idea of the beauty and wonders of creation! I am persuaded that the generality of people, and particularly fine ladies, only adore God because they are told it is proper, and the fashion to go to church; but I would have my girls gain such an acquaintance with the works of creation, that they may have a fixed idea of the nature of that Being who could be the author of such a world. Whenever they have that, nothing on this side the moon will give them much uneasiness. I do not mean that they should be stoics, or want the common feelings for the sufferings that flesh is heir to; but they would then have a source of consolation for the worst that could happen. Give them my blessing, and charge them to be diligent.

'Tell me, how do the trees which I planted thrive? Is there shade un-

der the three oaks for a comfortable summer-seat? Do the poplars grow at the walk? and does the wall of the terrace stand firm? My bankers tell me, that all my money in their hands is exhausted by fees on the peerage, and that I am in their debt, which is a new epoch in my life; for it is the first time I was ever in debt since I was a midshipman. Here I get nothing; but then my expenses are nothing, and I do not want it, particularly now that I have got my knives, forks, teapot, and the things you were so kind as to send me.' Lord Collingwood's title (he having no son,) became extinct at his decease, 1810.

LORD EDWARD FITZGERALD (1763—1798) was fifth son of James, first duke of Leinster, and early adopted liberal political notions. During the ferment which the French Revolution produced in Ireland, he became an active member of the Society of United Irishmen, established 1791, to spread levelling principles; and when a conspiracy had been framed to separate the island from the British dominions, he went as its secret agent to the French Directory, to solicit the aid of a French fleet. It has been shown in the Irish history, that the plans of the conspirators were admirably frustrated, and that lord Edward's person was attainted of high treason, and seized by the magistracy of Dublin. During the scuffle which ensued with the officers of justice, when his lordship had declared that neither his papers nor himself should be touched, he was severely wounded by a pistol-shot, and died soon after in prison, aged 35, 1798. Lord Edward had married Pamela, natural daughter of *Egalité*, duke of Orleans, (by the governess of his children, the celebrated madame de Genlis), by whom he left issue a son and two daughters. His attainder was reversed by the British parliament, 1819.

CHARLES MARQUIS CORNWALLIS (1738—1805) was son of Charles, the first earl, and received his educa-

tion at Eton, and St. John's college, Cambridge. Devoting himself to the profession of arms, he in 1758 obtained a captain's commission in the light infantry; in 1761 was aide-de-camp to the marquis of Granby, and went to Germany till the conclusion of the campaign; succeeded in 1762 as earl Cornwallis; and three years after was made aide-de-camp to the king. He obtained the 33rd regiment of foot in 1766, and two years after married Miss Jones, a lady of large fortune, who died of a broken heart, when unable to dissuade him from his attendance in the campaigns against the Americans. The seizure of Philadelphia was followed by the reduction of South Carolina, and the defeat of Gates with an inferior force; but these advantages were tarnished by the earl's defeat at York-town, 1781, and the surrender of himself and his whole army to the enemy. He laid the blame of this issue on sir Henry Clinton, who had not given him the succour he expected; and though removed from his place of governor of the Tower on his return by capitulation to England, he was in 1786 sent out to India, with the double appointment of commander-in-chief, and governor-general. His first exploit on this new scene was an invasion of the Mysore country, whose sultan had attacked the state of the rajah of Travancore, the ally of the English. Lord Cornwallis entered the Mysore, 1791, and in the next year besieged the capital city of Seringapatam, and obliged the sultan, Tippu Sahib, to sue for peace, to pay a large sum of money, and to yield his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty. On the conclusion of this important war, his lordship returned to England; and was created a marquis, and appointed master-general of the ordnance, for his services. From 1798 to 1801 he was lord lieutenant of Ireland, conducting himself with great firmness and judgment during the rebellion there; in 1802 he signed the peace of Amiens; and in 1804, on the

recal of the marquis Wellesley, was again made governor-general of India. In that country he died the next year, 1805, at Ghuzpoor, aged 67; lamented as an amiable, unassuming man, a just ruler, and a vigilant and active soldier.

RALPH ABERCROMBY (1738—1801), born at Tillibodie, Clackmannanshire, early entered the army, and was appointed, 1795, commander-in-chief of the forces in the West Indies; in which expedition he captured the islands of Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Trinidad, with the settlements of Demerara and Essequibo. In the attempt upon Holland, 1799, he (now sir Ralph) had the sole command on the first landing, and both his troops and himself greatly distinguished themselves; but he acted under the duke of York's orders when that prince arrived, and the final issue of the expedition was a truce, which gave great disgust generally to the nation. The next and last service of sir Ralph was the expedition to Egypt, of which he was commander-in-chief, 1801. The troops, after a violent conflict, landed at Aboukir, March 8th; and on the 13th was fought the battle of Alexandria, wherein sir Ralph was unhorsed and wounded in two places, notwithstanding which he disarmed his antagonist, and gave the sword to sir Sidney Smith. He kept the field during the day, and was then conveyed on board the admiral's ship, where he expired on the 19th, aged sixty-three. His widow was hereupon created baroness Abercromby, with remainder to the issue male of her late husband; and a pension of 2000*l.* a year was granted by the country in support of the dignity.

ADAM DUNCAN (1731—1804), born in Scotland of a respectable family, went very early to sea, and served as post-captain in 1762, at the taking of Havannah. In 1779 he shared in the victory of admiral Rodney over the Spaniards; was made rear-admiral of the blue, 1789, and by regular gradation, became,

1794, vice-admiral of the white squadron. In 1795 he was sent to watch the Dutch in the harbour of the Texel, and had for two years that harassing and uninteresting duty, until at last his men mutinied; but his sailing homewards in consequence, induced the Dutch fleet to come out, and his men thereupon returning to order, he encountered the enemy off Camperdown, in Holland, defeated them, and captured eight of their ships, together with their admiral, De Winter. This splendid achievement obtained the gallant admiral the title of viscount Duncan, and a pension of 2000*l.* a year; and from that period he retired to private life, and died, aged 73, 1804.

MICHAEL NEY (1769—1815), born of humble parents, at Savre Louis, entered as a private into the French hussars, and had obtained the rank of a subaltern at the beginning of the revolution. In the progress of that anarchical visitation, he rapidly rose to command; and in the shameful invasion of Switzerland, 1798, he was the principal leader. He was created marshal of France, 1804, and in the next year gained the victory to which he owed his title of duke of Elchingen. He mainly contributed to the success of the French at Friedland; was a skilful officer during the retreat from the Peninsula before lord Wellington; and his services at the terrible battle of Mojaisk, in Russia, where he commanded the centre of the French army, procured him the title of prince of Moskwa, and the soldiers' epithet of 'bravest of the brave.' Having subsequently lost the battle of Dennewitz, in Germany, the dissatisfaction of Napoleon induced him to retire to Paris in a kind of disgrace. He was, however, again employed in 1814; though he afterwards contributed to induce the emperor to resign his authority, and was one of the first of the imperial generals who offered submission to the Bourbons. He preserved therefore all his titles and pensions, and was created a peer of France. In Fe-

bruary, 1815, when Napoleon had returned from Elba, and was on his march to Paris, Ney received orders from the minister at war to repair to his government of Besançon; and before proceeding thither from his country seat, he visited Paris, and assured Louis XVIII. that he would bring him the disturber of Europe *confined in an iron cage*. He then set out with some regiments towards Lyon; but instead of attacking the invader, he joined his standard, and became one of his most active partisans. He led on the last charge of his old master's force at Waterloo, on the failure of Napoleon to take the command, against the duke of Wellington in person; and after that event, he took refuge in Auvergne, where he was arrested as one of the authors of the revolution, conveyed to Paris, convicted of treason, and condemned by a council of war to be shot to death, a penalty which he suffered with great fortitude, in his 47th year, Dec. 7, 1815.

MARSHAL MACDONALD (1765—1840), of a Scottish family, entered the French army as a lieutenant, 1783. He was a colonel at Jemappes, and was made general on passing the Waal when it was frozen. He was severely wounded at the battle of Trebbia, 1799. Though his friendship with Moreau brought him into disgrace with Napoleon, the latter did not refuse him the bâton of marechale, when he had made a successful attack on the Austrian centre at Wagram; and he was created *duc de Tarente*. In the Russian campaign, he commanded the 10th corps; and at Leipsic he sprang into the river Elster with Poniatowski, and, more fortunate than the gallant Pole, escaped. In 1815, when the troops under him in the service of Louis XVIII. went over to Napoleon, he refused to join in their revolt; and he took no part in the ensuing conflict at Waterloo. He died at his domain of Courcelles, near Orleans, 1840, aged 75.

ALEXANDER BERTHIER (1753 —

1815), born at Versailles, having obtained a commission in a regiment of dragoons, served in the American revolutionary war, and acquired considerable reputation. During the French revolution, he became commandant of the national guard at Versailles; and in this situation he exerted himself to check the excesses of the populace. During the 'reign of terror' he served under La Fayette and Luckner; and afterwards under Buonaparte in his first Italian campaign. From this time he accompanied Napoleon in all his movements, as chief of the staff, for which situation he was eminently fitted, though, as a general, his talents were not above mediocrity. In 1803, he married a Bavarian princess; in 1805, was created a marshal, grand huntsman of the empire, and chief of the first cohort of the legion of honour; in 1806, became prince of Neufchatel; and in 1809, prince of Wagram. In 1810, he officiated as Napoleon's proxy in the marriage with Maria Louisa. On the restoration of Louis XVIII., he accepted the situation of captain of one of the companies of the *gardes-du-corps*; and on the return of Napoleon, he retired to Bamberg, where, on the 20th of March, 1815, he died, either by falling accidentally, or purposely throwing himself, from a window, at which he had been surveying the entrance of the Russian troops into the town.

JEAN VICTOR MOREAU (1763—1813), born of a respectable family at Morlaix in Brittany, quitted the law for the army, enlisting clandestinely as a common soldier at eighteen. His father, however, purchased his discharge, and he became an advocate; but on the outbreak of the revolution, he accepted the command of a volunteer legion of republican Breton youth, and joined the army of the north. In the campaign of 1794, he, at the head of a separate corps of 25,000 men, rapidly reduced several strong places in Flanders; and after aiding Pichegru in the conquest of Holland, was appointed

commander-in-chief of the army of the Rhine, opening the campaign of 1796 by the defeat of the Austrian general Wurmser, whom he drove across the Rhine, and pursued into Germany. The archduke Charles of Austria, who attempted to arrest his course, met for some time with no better success ; but the Austrians were at length so largely reinforced, that Moreau was compelled to yield to numbers, and he finished the memorable campaign by a masterly retreat through the defiles of the Black Forest, in which, though assailed on all sides by a hostile peasantry, and with a superior army hanging on his rear, he triumphantly fought his way to the Rhine. On being suspected of joining with Pichegru in a correspondence with the Bourbon princes, he resigned his command, 1797 ; but he was recalled to act against the Austrians in Italy, 1798 ; supported the cause of Buonaparte at Paris, when the latter had resolved on being first consul ; and received the command of the armies of the Danube and Rhine, at whose head, 1800, he won from the Austrians the sanguinary and decisive battle of Hohenlinden. The first consul loaded him, on his return to Paris, with eulogy ; but Buonaparte and Moreau were each too eager in the same career of ambition, to pursue it without dangerous collision. On a charge, which pretended to implicate him in the royalist conspiracy of Pichegru and Cadouhal, 1804, Moreau was exiled by his rival's faction to America ; where he resided till induced by the emperor Alexander of Russia to assist the allied armies against his country, 1813. He had scarcely arrayed himself in their ranks, when he was mortally wounded at the battle of Dresden ; and in a few days, after bearing the amputation of both legs without a groan, he expired.

CHARLES PICHEGRU (1761—1804), born of poor parents at Arbois, enlisted as a common soldier, and, by his energetic conduct in the revolution, was appointed to succeed general Hoche in the command of the ar-

my of the north, 1794. He soon restored the discipline of that force, which had been greatly broken ; obtained possession of nearly the whole country on the line of the river Wahl before winter ; and when that season had set in, crossed the ice, and completely drove the allied English and Dutch from Nimeguen, Breda, and the adjacent territory. During the Parisian insurrection of the Faubourgs, 1795, he contributed, as general of the army of Paris, to allay the ferment ; and he then joined the army of the Rhine, and entered into correspondence with the prince of Condé to restore the Bourbons. Being suspected, Moreau was sent to supersede him, 1796 ; and retiring to Jura, he was elected deputy for that department, and president of the council of 500. In 1797, on a charge of leaguings to overthrow the republic, he was transported with Barthelemi and others to Cayenne ; whence he escaped to England, and there planned, with Cadouhal, and other Vendéans, the overthrow of the first consul's government. He was seized while in disguise at Paris, 1804, and carried to the Temple ; where he was found strangled, April 6, 1804.

FRANZ KELLERMANN (1735—1820), born at Strasburg, entered the army as a private among the Conflans (French) hussars, when 17. His ardour, intelligence, and passion for arms, soon attracted the observation of his superiors ; and having given manifest proofs of his talent and courage, in the Seven Years' War, he was made an officer, and rapidly promoted, till, in 1788, he was appointed quartermaster-general. Having adopted with enthusiasm the principles of the revolution, he was in 1792 appointed commander of the army of the Moselle. He then effected a junction with Dumouriez, on the plain of Champagne ; and on the 17th of September, he greatly distinguished himself by his defence of the position of Valmy. The failure of this 'cannonade of Valmy' by the duke of Brunswick, caused the allies to re-

treat, and perhaps decided, not merely the whole campaign, but also the fate of Europe, and the supremacy of France, till 1813. Kellermann next served under Custine, who denounced him to the National Convention; and though he justified himself against the accusation of that officer, several similar attacks followed, and he was at length arrested, and confined in the military prison of the Abbaye at Paris. Fortunately, his trial did not take place till after the expiration of the Reign of Terror, and he was acquitted. In 1795 he took the command of the army of the Alps and Italy; but he was soon superseded by Buonaparte. On his return to Paris in 1798, he was nominated a member of the military board established by the Directory. In 1801 he was president of the conservative senate, and in the following year was made a marshal of the empire. Under Napoleon, he served with great credit in Germany and Prussia; for which the *soi-disant* emperor gave him the estates of Johannisberg, and created him duc de Valmy. After the fall of his benefactor, 1814, Kellermann voted for the restoration of the Bourbons; and, continuing firm to their cause when Napoleon returned from Elba, he was allowed a seat in the chamber of peers, and, though on the liberal side, was employed by the government until his decease, at the age of 85, 1820. His dying request was 'that his heart should be buried on the field of Valmy'—in consecrated ground we hope, though the Buonaparte school little cared for such matters.

By the Buonaparte school must be understood, the race of military men, officers and privates, who sprung up in France with the Revolution. All in the main were atheists; and this all pretty well comprised, at one juncture (the moment when Napoleon assumed the imperial title), the whole French nation. It was not that Buonaparte encouraged infidel opinions among his subjects; but they had been all born at a period

when religion, through the teaching of the illuminating philosophers, had been cast aside by all classes under those of the noble and gentle; the officers of the Revolution, having been, almost to a man, taken from the ranks, eventually to become marshals and peers of the empire. Men thus nurtured without religion, were not very scrupulous in matters of conscience; and what all duly educated persons style 'principle,' the Buonaparte school were celebrated for denouncing as 'prejudice.'

JEAN KLEBER was an officer in the French republican army, who, for his many services, was raised to the rank of general, and took the command of the French army in Egypt, when Buonaparte left it secretly, to return to Paris. In this post of difficulty, Kleber not only kept the unruly soldiery in subjection, but captured Cairo. He was entering into negotiations for the removal of the army safely to Europe, when an Arab assassinated him in the garden of his residence, 1800. Kleber, it is affirmed, was always envied by Napoleon; and there are those who assert, that the designs of the former upon the throne of France, were both as well concerted as those of the latter, and well known to that more fortunate general.

LOUIS DESAIX was also a French general of the Revolution. He acted under Moreau on the Rhine, 1796, and materially tended to that commander's success at Rastadt and the bridge of Kehl; in which last action he was wounded, and had his horse killed under him. Accompanying the Egyptian expedition, he was made governor of Upper Egypt, and distinguished himself greatly against Murad Bey; but when Napoleon required his aid in the Italian campaign of 1800, he joined him at Marengo, and was killed on the field at the moment that victory had decided in favour of the French. His body was interred with high military honours in the convent of Mont St. Bernard; where a splendid monu-

ment, besides one at Paris, commemorates his achievements.

ALEXANDER SUVAROV, the Russian field-marshal, rose to distinction in the Seven Years' War. From 1768 to 1789, he was distinguished as a most intrepid, but somewhat barbaric, warrior, against both Turks and Tartars; and in the last-named year, by his timely arrival with 10,000 Russians, he saved the Austrian army under the prince of Saxe-Coburg, then surrounded on the banks of the Rymynisk by 100,000 Turks. To his victory over this vast force he was indebted for his title of count. The next and most sanguinary of his actions was the storming of Ismailov, 1790. In three days he sacked the place, though it had withstood the assaults of other generals seven months; and after putting to the sword 40,000 of the inhabitants, his only despatch to prince Potemkin, the minister, was, 'Glory to God, Ismailov is ours.' The empress now sent Suvarov against Poland; and after sacrificing 20,000 Poles in his way to Warsaw, he paved the way for the unjust division of that country. He defeated the French at Novi in Italy, 1799; but was compelled to retreat through Switzerland when Moreau became his antagonist. This memorable exploit was considered on all hands to have displayed his military talent even more, if possible, than his many victories; but it was his last manoeuvre, as he was soon after recalled by the capricious Paul, who desired peace with France. He died near Petersburg, 1800, aged 70. Though cruel as a soldier, Suvarov was always governed by a species of religious principle, as well as by his notions of strict justice. During the struggle which took place, when forcing his way by the passage of the Alps of St. Gothard, he remained a whole day in his shirt, in sight of the army, with a shoe on one foot and a boot on the other, to accomplish a vow; and he never marched without an image of his patron-saint about his person.

JOHN MOORE (1761—1809), son

of Dr. Moore, the well known author of 'Zeluco,' was born at Glasgow, and educated at the high-school of that city. After accompanying his father and the youthful duke of Hamilton in a tour of the continent, (Dr. Moore acting as travelling tutor to the duke), he obtained an ensigncy in a foot regiment, the gift of the duke of Argyll; and he gradually rose to the highest command, after serving in the American war, in Ireland during the rebellion 1798, and under Abercromby in Egypt. In 1808, he was appointed to the command of an army to be employed in driving the French out of Spain, and Portugal; and after a course of the most gallant and masterly description, he fell at Corunna, aged 48, as related in the account of the Peninsular War; and was buried there by torch-light, amid the firing of the enemy, in the night of January 16th, 1809.

GEBHARL LEBRECHT VON BUCHER (1742—1819) was born at Rostock, in Mecklenburgh Schwerin; in which province his family had been established for some centuries, having given a bishop to Lübeck in the thirteenth. He entered the Swedish army at fourteen; but, being taken prisoner, exchanged the service, on his release, for that of Prussia, in which he continued during the Seven Years' War. He quitted the army on the signing of peace, but rejoined it (again in the Prussian service), and distinguished himself, as a major-general, by his masterly retreat through Lübeck, after the battle of Jena, 1806. Towards the close of the campaign, he was once more made prisoner by the French, but was exchanged for the duc de Bellino; and he again gained great credit for his bravery and skill at Lutzen, Leipzig, and in the driving of the French out of Germany, almost to the gates of their own capital, 1814. For his constant shouting his war-cry of 'Vorwärts' to the troops during this last exploit, he acquired among them the appellation of *Marschall Vorwärts*, 'Marshal Forwards,' which

is still the name that Germans delight to use in speaking of him. Towards the close of the campaign in question, the infirmities of old age almost induced the marshal, at one moment, to abandon his command, and retire into the Netherlands; but the spirit triumphed over the flesh, and, though unable to remain in the saddle for the last attack on Montmartre, he gave his orders with calmness and precision from a carriage. His appearance on this occasion must have taxed the gravity of his staff, however difficult the task of exciting laughter in a Prussian soldier; for, to protect his eyes, then in a state of violent inflammation, the grisly veteran supplied the place of his cocked hat by a French lady's bonnet and veil! His health totally prevented him from sharing the triumphal entry of the sovereigns into Paris; and on the 2d of April (1814) he resigned the burden of his military command.

The peace of Paris, however, by no means satiated Blücher's thirst for the humiliation of France; and it is well known that he expressed his dislike of it very unceremoniously, even to his sovereign, and openly blamed the lenity of the allied monarchs in sparing the capital. 'It ought to have been ransacked and then burned to the ground (he would exclaim), in return for the villain's brutal spoliation of Berlin, and his monstrous robbery of our works of art.' After enjoying the reward of his services in the enthusiastic congratulations of London (whither he accompanied the king of Prussia and emperor of Russia, on the fall of Paris), and of Berlin, the veteran divided for awhile his residence between the latter city and Breslau; at all times and places exhal- ing his discontent at the concessions of the allies. Napoleon he now thought ought to have been hanged, instead of being allowed the dignity of a king even of Elbese. Unmeasured in his language, mixing freely in the society of all classes, and venting his spleen on all diplomats, but especially on Harden-

berg, he became, without any personal object of aggrandisement or political ambition, but in the mere indulgence of his ill-humour, the nucleus of a little 'Fronde,' calculated to offend, without influencing, the sovereign and his ministers. That he looked forward to another trial of strength between his countrymen and the French is evident; but it is hardly possible, that, at his age, he should have contemplated the probability of once more, in person, directing the fortunes of the contest, and of at last feeding fat the ancient grudge he bore, not only to Napoleon, but to the whole French nation. His speculations were more the offspring of his feelings, than of any profound observation of the political state of Europe; and he might have gone on smoking, gaming, and scolding, without interruption, if the great event had not occurred, which restored him to his more legitimate vocation. The news of Napoleon's escape, 1815, found him accidentally at Berlin. His first impulse was to call on the English ambassador, to twit him with the negligence of his countrymen; his next to exhibit himself in the principal street of the capital in his field-marshal's uniform,—a significant hint to younger generals, not to expect he would concede to them his place in the approaching fray. His nomination to that post of honour and danger soon ensued, and his old companion and adviser, Gneisenau, was once more at his side.

It has been shown, in the sketch of the battle of Waterloo, how spiritedly 'marshal Vorwarts' bore the first attacks of the French, yet was near being defeated at Ligny on the 16th of June, 1815. In that conflict he had his horse shot under him, and narrowly escaped with his life,—a whole squadron of cavalry actually charging over him, as he lay helpless on the ground. It was only by an act of devotion, to which even Froissart has furnished no parallel exploit of high chivalry, that his

aide-de-camp, Nostitz, saved him from destruction. By that faithful and admiring friend, the marshal was conveyed to a cottage, whence he dictated his despatches, and issued his orders, unshaken in spirit, though sorely bruised in body. While the surgeon was rubbing his contusions, he asked the nature of the liniment; and on being told that it was brandy, he stated his opinion that an internal application would be far more efficacious. This was objected to, but was subsequently allowed in the mitigated shape of champagne; and he said to the messenger, who was on the point of departing with a despatch finished at the moment the bottle was placed on his table, 'Tell his majesty, when he asks about me, *das ich hatte kalt nachgetrunken*, and that all will do well.' His order of the day for the 17th, after some reflections on the conduct of the cavalry and artillery, (on whom, when he had made the fruitless charge at their head, the French cavalry, who stood firm in their ranks, poured a most destructive carbine fire, in the manner of the sixteenth century, instead of fighting at the sword point, as now the usage,) concluded with these words—'I shall lead you again against the enemy: we shall beat him—for we *must*.' On the defeat of the French troops at Waterloo, on the 18th, he was created Fürst (prince) of Wahlstadt by his sovereign. He did not, however, survive this honour long. His last illness came upon him at Kriblowitz; his death-bed was attended by the king, who had ever regarded him; and he expired calm and resigned, in the arms of his faithful Nostitz, aged 77, 1819. (Blücher pronounced *Bleeh'-her*.)

CHARLES DUMOURIEZ (1739—1823), born at Cambrai, entered the army early, and served in Germany during the Seven Years' War. After the peace of Paris, 1763, he was for many years a wanderer, joined the French expedition against Corsica, 1769, then acted as a private emissary of Louis XV. to different coun-

tries, but was at last imprisoned in the Bastille, through the jealousy of the ministry, and there kept until released by Louis XVI. at his accession. In 1778 he was sent to Cherbourg, to form a great naval establishment connected with the proposed invasion of England; and he furnished the ministry with plans for the conquest of the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, and Wight. At the beginning of the revolution he took the popular side, as a Girondist; but he soon became disgusted with, as well as afraid of, the ultra-revolutionists, or jacobins, and was rejoiced to escape from internal politics to command the army against the duke of Brunswick, in the room of La Fayette. It was then that he made that stand in the forest of Argonne, which, by giving time to Kellermann and others to come up with fresh troops, and defeat the Prussians at Valmy, 1792, saved France from an invasion, which in all probability would have extinguished the revolution. After gaining the battle of Jemappes against the Austrians, and taking great part of Flanders, Dumouriez was called to Paris during the king's trial; but after the execution, he returned to the army, fully resolved, like Monk in the case of Charles II., to restore the monarchy, should occasion offer. Meanwhile, entering Holland, he took Breda and other towns; but being checked by the army of the prince of Coburg, he gladly entered into secret negotiations with the prince, and retreated to St. Armand, within the French frontier, March, 1793. When censured by the Convention, he candidly declared, that a republic was but another name for anarchy, and that he would alone support the constitutional monarchy of 1791; and upon some of the members repairing to St. Armand to seize him, he sent them under guard, to be detained as hostages. His design now was to march upon Paris; but finding his soldiers unwilling to proceed thither, he retired from command. The Aus-

trians, however, did not relish his plan of a constitutional monarchy; so that, regarded with coldness by them, hated by the royalists, and denounced by the Convention, even to the offer of 300,000 francs for his head, he once more became a wanderer, till, in 1805, he obtained leave from the British ministry to settle in England. There the remainder of his days was spent in literary pursuits, especially in writing his own memoirs; and he died at Turville Park, near Henley, aged 84, 1823.

JOSEPHINE DE LA PAGÈRIE (1763—1814), the first wife of Napoleon Buonaparte, was born in Martinique. While very young her father took her to France, to marry her to the viscount Beauharnais. Josephine, in the prime of her beauty, and still more adorned by that peculiar grace which distinguished her through life, had what was then called 'great success' at court. She bore the viscount two children, Eugene and Hortense. Her husband was known in the beginning of the Revolution, as an advocate of constitutional principles; but the fury of terrorism increased, and he who had valiantly defended what he supposed to be France, at the head of its armies, was thrown into prison, and executed. Josephine also was included in the list of proscription; but the death of her husband reduced her to such a state of incapacity, that she could not be removed; and to this circumstance she owed her escape from the scaffold. Robespierre at length perished, and the vicountess was delivered from prison by Tallien, who was never forgotten by her, nor by Eugene, from whom he received a considerable pension till his death. Josephine was indebted to Barras for the restoration of a part of the property of her husband; and at his house, after the 13th Vendemiaire, she met general Buonaparte, who had previously taken an interest in her on the following account. The disarming of the citizens having been decreed, a boy of fifteen years presented himself to Buonaparte, and with great earnestness demanded the

sword of his father. That boy was Eugene; and Buonaparte, touched by his filial zeal, was desirous to see his mother, to whom he immediately became attached. He married her in 1796. She followed the hero of Italy; and her whole subsequent life was intimately connected with that of Napoleon, at whose side she stood like a good genius. She had considerable influence over him; and his letters to her are proofs both of her amiable character, and of his warm attachment to her. She was always benevolent, and ever accessible to such as sought protection or mercy from the emperor through her. When Napoleon became desirous of marrying the daughter of Francis of Austria, she felt it deeply; yet had she firmness enough to consent to what he thought best for France and for himself, and to be divorced from him. She retired to her beautiful seat of Malmaison, with the title of empress-queen-dowager; and thither the respect and love of all the better French followed her. She was doomed to see the destruction of that throne on which she had once sat, 1814. The emperor Alexander of Russia, and the king of Prussia, but particularly the former, showed their respect for her virtues by repeated visits to Malmaison; but the fate of her quondam husband undermined her strength; and having exposed herself, while in a feeble state of health, by walking on a chilly day with the emperor Alexander, she was seized with a pleurisy, and died, aged 51, May 29th, 1814. Her last words were, 'L'île d'Elbe!—Napoléon!' Josephine was handsome; her figure was elegant and majestic, and all her movements were full of grace; but her greatest charms were a religious conduct, and an unchangeable goodness of heart. Her virtues, however, place the character of her 'expedient' husband in the worst of lights.

GILBERT MOTTIER, MARQUIS DE LA FAYETTE (1757—1834), born at Chevagnac, in the now Haute Loire, adopted republican notions from his

very cradle; and though offered a place at court by the relations of his wife (of the family of Noailles d'Ayen), he preferred meddling in the American revolution. With that view he offered his services to the radical philosopher, Benjamin Franklin, armed a vessel at his own expense, and landed at Charleston in April, 1777. He fought as a volunteer at the battle of Brandywine, on the 11th of September, 1777, and was wounded. Congress having now given him a brevet of major-general, he served in the north under Washington's orders, and was at the battle of Monmouth, in June, 1778; and he afterwards received the thanks of congress, and the present of a valuable sword. In 1779 he returned to France, the government of that country having acknowledged the independence of the American states; and he obtained assistance in money and men, with which he returned to America. In 1780, he commanded the advanced guard of Washington's army; and in the following year he was intrusted with the defence of Virginia, against lord Cornwallis. Being joined by Washington and Rochambeau, he contributed to the operations in consequence of which lord Cornwallis was obliged to capitulate at York-town. After the surrender of Cornwallis, he returned to France for fresh reinforcements; but the peace of 1783 prevented his sailing back to America. Having thus helped to get a foreign people through their revolution successfully, he next resolved to try his skill in the same way in his own country; and in 1787, being returned a member of the Assembly of Notables, he advocated the abolition of lettres de cachet and state-prisons; and supported the claims of the protestants of France, who were still labouring under civil disabilities. He also promoted the convocation of the States General, of which assembly he was returned a member. In this capacity he seconded Mirabcau's motion for the removal

of the military from the neighbourhood of the capital; and in July, 1789, he proposed the first declaration of rights, which formed the basis of the following constitution. In the same month, being appointed commandant-general of Paris, he organized the national guard, and distributed among the soldiers a tricoloured cockade, namely, *blue* and *red*, the colours of the commune of Paris, and *white*, the colour of the lilies of France; and these became thenceforth the national colours. On the 15th of October of that year, he marched at the head of the national guard to Versailles, where a tumultuous multitude had preceded him; and brought thence the alarmed Louis XVI. and his family to Paris. Something like sympathy for the danger of his king now prompted La Fayette to adopt less levelling opinions, and to express himself favourable to monarchy, if 'well restrained.' With this change of views, he, in the Assembly, after voting for the suppression of the hereditary nobility, supported the proposal for 'a constitutional monarchy;' and even when the king had been arrested in his flight, and brought back from Varennes, he proposed his restoration to the regal office, provided he would swear to a specified constitution. Upon this, the republican party broke forth into insurrection; an *émeute* which La Fayette and the national guards put down on the Champ de Mars. The war of the first coalition having begun, La Fayette was appointed to the command of the army of Flanders; and he defeated the allies at Philippeville and Mauberge. He was, however, hated by the jacobins at Paris, and mistrusted by the court; and so monarchical had he become in 1792, that he demanded of the Legislative Assembly the punishment of the outrages committed against the king at the Tuileries on the 20th of June. But the republican party was already preponderating in that oligarchy; and La Fayette found that he was not

safe in Paris. It is said that he then proposed to the king and royal family, to take shelter in his camp at Compiègne; but his advice was rejected by Louis, or rather by those around him, who placed all their confidence in the duke of Brunswick and the Prussians. On the 30th of June, the jacobins of Paris burned La Fayette in effigy; and he was soon after outlawed, and obliged to cross the frontiers with a few friends. His intention was to repair to some neutral country; but he was arrested by the Austrians, and carried to the fortress of Olmutz, in Moravia, where his wife and daughter soon after joined him, to console him in his confinement. He remained in prison for five years, and was released at last by the treaty of Campo-Formio; but not approving of the arbitrary conduct of the Directory, he repaired to Hamburg, and did not return to France till after the 19th Brumaire, 1799. Here he found himself again in opposition to Buonaparte's ambition; and after voting against the consulship for life, he retired to the country, where he applied himself to agricultural pursuits. In 1815 he was returned to the house of representatives, convoked by Napoleon on his return from Elba; and when the allied troops had compelled a dissolution of the new 'legislative assembly,' he protested against that violence, and retired to his country residence at Lagrange. In 1824 he went on a visit to the United States, where he was received with the greatest enthusiasm in every department of the Union. In 1830, being in the house of deputies, he was foremost among the members who resisted the ordinances of Charles X. as arbitrary. He even, republican once more, called out the national guards; and, putting himself at their head, he proposed Louis Philippe, duc d'Orleans, as king of the French,—stating his conviction, that a monarchy, based on popular institutions, was the government best suited to France. When his suggestion, however, had

been adopted, and the duke of Orleans had been called to the throne, he soon quarrelled with the king of his own choice, opposed as he was to all Louis Philippe's views of both foreign and domestic policy; and he was rapidly descending to his original ultra sentiments, when death seized him, in his 78th year, 1834.

GASPAR MONGE (1746—1818), renowned as a mathematician, was born at Beaune, and made such progress among the fathers of the Oratory at Lyon, that at sixteen he became a teacher. In 1780 he removed to Paris, and lectured in the Academy of Sciences; and when the Revolution broke out, he regarded the regeneration of France as certain. Through the influence of Condorcet, he was made minister of the marine, 1792; and he held at the same time the portfolio of minister of war, during the absence of general Servan with the army. He thus became a member of the executive council of government, in which quality he signed the order for the execution of Louis XVI. Shortly after, he resigned his functions, in consequence of which he was exposed to the persecution of the ruling party of the jacobins, against which he successfully defended himself. He was then employed, together with other men of science, in improving the manufacture of gunpowder, and otherwise augmenting the military resources of the country; and, together with Berthollet and Guyton Morveau, he principally contributed to the establishment of the Polytechnic school. In 1796 he was commissioned to go to Italy, and collect the treasures of art and science from the countries conquered by the French; and the labours of Monge and his colleagues gave rise to the splendid assemblage of works of taste and genius, which for a time ornamented the halls of the Louvre. In 1798 he went with Buonaparte to Egypt, where he was again employed in the service of science. On his return to France, he resumed his functions as professor at

the Polytechnic school, in the success of which he greatly interested himself. The attachment which he on various occasions manifested to Buonaparte, led to his being nominated a member of the senate, on the first formation of that body; and the emperor further made him count of Pelusium (!) and gave him, on setting out for Russia, a far more tangible proof of his affection—200,000 francs. The fall of his benefactor involved Monge in misfortune; and after being expelled the Institute, 1816, and deprived of all his employments, he lost his reason, and died, aged 72, 1818. '*La Géométrie Descriptive*' is the most talented work of Monge; but his practical treatises have been made great use of by engineers of all nations.

EDMUND BURKE (1730—1797), son of an attorney at Carlow in Ireland, was born there; and, after graduating at Trinity college, Dublin, entered at the Middle Temple, London. He some time lived by his pen; and his '*Essay on the Sublime*,' introduced him at once to the circle of the learned. Dodsley, at his suggestion, commenced his *Annual Register*, 1758, which is to this day continued by Messrs. Rivington. In the Rockingham administration he held office; but, as a member of the commons, he constantly attacked Mr. Pitt, especially on the regency question, and was at first a warm admirer of the French revolution. Upon the destruction of the French monarchy, however, he altered his tone, published his '*Reflections*' on the event, separated from his party, and zealously supported Mr. Pitt. His accusation of Mr. Hastings is the only blot on his political character: as a private man, he was affable, benevolent, exemplary in all duties, religious and moral, and dignified in demeanour. As an author, Burke will ever hold rank among the most accurate critics, for his elegant and philosophical work '*On the Sublime and Beautiful*.' He died 1797, aged sixty-seven.

RICHARD BRINSLEY SHERIDAN (1751—1816), son of Thomas Sheridan, the celebrated lecturer on elocution, was born in Dublin, but sent for education to Eton. Thence he was removed, on account of his parent's embarrassments, at eighteen; but he soon after entered himself at the Middle Temple, with a view to the bar. His briefs, however, when called to plead, were lamentably few, and for subsistence he began writing for the stage; and it is almost needless to say, that his '*Rivals*,' '*Duenna*,' and '*School for Scandal*,' speedily gained him high reputation as well as wealth. Having bought, in conjunction with two others, Garrick's share in the patent of management of Drury-lane theatre, the property qualified him for a seat in parliament; and entering the lists against lord North, his oratory was so powerful, that when that lord resigned, he was made under-war-secretary. He held office in the coalition; and, upon its dissolution, became the violent opponent of Mr. Pitt. In the impeachment of Hastings he sided with Burke; and his eloquence on that occasion has been considered one of the most able of oratorical efforts. Notwithstanding his marriage with a woman of fortune, a post of 12,000*l.* a year from the crown, and his share in Drury-lane, Sheridan, being wholly improvident, became at length the tenant of a gaol. He died 1816, aged sixty-five.

As a dramatic author, Sheridan is at the head of that department of comedy which exhibits the vices of fashionable society in its every-day commerce, its deceptions, intrigues, slanders, and detractions; and the '*School for Scandal*' is his masterpiece.

As an orator, Sheridan was extraordinary for variety and force; and in the anathemas of vengeance, or in bursts of anger, scarcely any English speaker ever equalled him. Pitt's eloquence was more accurate, copious, and better arranged: it was uniformly impressive, while his power

in sarcasm was equal to Sheridan's force in angry denunciation. Fox was superior in argumentative force: his reasoning faculties were always kept in full action during his speeches; and so closely did he conflict in this way, that he pursued his consequent, link by link, to the very end of the chain of deductions. As a mere speaker, he was inferior to Pitt, Burke, and Sheridan. Burke was wholly different from the three mentioned. He often reasoned ill, flew desultorily from one subject to another; and when he wished to accuse or condemn, lost both temper and manners; but his diction was so rich and varied, his vivacity and rapidity so extraordinary, and his genius so marked, that his hearers thought themselves convinced, when they were only dazzled. In a word, while Sheridan, by passionate declamation, could rouse the slumbering spirit of his auditors, Burke could urge them forward to scenes of daring action: and while Fox could convince his hearers by irresistible appeals to their reasoning faculties, Pitt, by his sober, dignified, and sensible exhortations, could lead them on to prudent resolves, and thence to generous and noble, but judicious deeds.

JOSEPH LAGRANGE (1736—1813), was born at Turin, and at the early age of sixteen was made professor of the artillery-school there. Joining his pupils, who were mostly older than himself, he originated the academy of Turin; and in the first volume of its transactions, made himself known by his application of the theory of recurring consequences, and the doctrine of chances, to the differential calculus. Euler was so astonished at his calculations of the motions of fluids, and his remarks on vibration, that he caused him to be chosen a member of the Berlin academy; and he ultimately became its director in physics. On the death of Frederick the Great, Lagrange became a member of the academy of sciences at Paris; and although the revolution alarmed him, he was, on

the settlement of the institutions, made professor of the polytechnic school, and laden with honours by Buonaparte. He died, 1813, aged 77.

The distinctive mark of Lagrange's genius consists in the unity and grandeur of his views. His principal work, '*Mecanique Analytique*,' refers all the laws of equilibrium and motion to a single principle; and, what is not less admirable, it submits them to a single method of calculation, of which he was himself the inventor. All his mathematical compositions are remarkable for that elegance, symmetry of form, and generality of method, which constitute the perfection of the analytic style.

JOHANN LUDWIG BURCKHARDT, born at Lausanne, studied at Leipsic and Gottingen, and visited England in 1806, to offer his services to the society of African discovery. When they were accepted, he went to Cambridge to study Arabic, and acquire a knowledge of medicine and surgery; and in March, 1809, he sailed for Malta, and thence proceeded to Aleppo, where he assumed the character of a Mussulman, and adopted the name of Ibrahim. After a stay of three years in Syria, he visited Nubia, whence he crossed the Red Sea; and after visiting Mecca and Medina, arrived in Cairo in June, 1815. The following spring he took a journey to Mount Sinai, and on his return to Cairo, he proposed to join one of the trading caravans to Timbuctoo; but while waiting for the departure of the caravan, which was delayed on account of the disturbed state of the country, he was seized with dysentery, and died at Cairo, aged 32. His travels have been published, and are still very popular in England.

CONTEMPORARIES.—THOMAS HARDY (1769—1839), son of Joshua Hardy, esq., of Portisham, Dorset, entered the navy at a very early period of his life, and was captain of lord Nelson's flag-ship, the *Victory*, at the battle of Trafalgar. In his arms the illustrious hero died; and

after he had carried the banner of emblems at his splendid funeral, he was made a baronet by George III., honoured with various commands, and finally appointed governor of Greenwich hospital. Sir Thomas died, aged 70, 1839. MATTHEW GREGORY LEWIS, son of a Jamaica proprietor, who was under-secretary at war, was born in London, and educated at Westminster school; on quitting which he travelled in Germany, and caught that spirit of terrific description so peculiarly the characteristic of German novelists. Commencing romance-writer on his return, Mr. Lewis produced his 'Monk,' 'Tales of Terror,' 'Castle Spectre,' and other harrowing narratives, too well known by the readers of such works to need description; and of which it is enough to say, that while they evince the inventive genius of the author, they too often display bad taste and licentiousness. His 'Bravo of Venice,' a translation from the German, is free from the latter charges; but then the work is not his own. His most talented original production is 'The Monk,' the popularity of which obtained him the epithet of 'Monk Lewis.' Mr. Lewis sat in parliament, but rarely spoke; and he died at sea, when on a voyage home from his West India possessions, aged 45, 1818. JAMES LACKINGTON (1746—1815), born at Wellington, Somersetshire, was son of a poor shoemaker, and apprenticed to his father's trade. After falling among the methodists, he was turned to more worldly pursuits by the occurrence of an election at Taunton, where one of the parliamentary candidates bought him out of his indentures. He was for some subsequent years a dissipated character, till he married, 1770, and with his wife removed to London, 1773—his whole property, on his arrival there, consisting of half-a-crown. From being a journeyman shoemaker he turned book-stall keeper, with a capital of 5*l.*; 1774; and from buying small quantities of secondhand books, he

rose to be able to purchase whole libraries, reversions of editions, and to contract with authors for their works. His business at length enabled him to live in style. He had married a second wife, a complete 'book-worm,' without being a blue-stocking; one who read from morning till night, and again from night until break of day. 'I now discovered (writes he in his memoir of himself) that lodgings in the country were very healthy. The year after, my country *lodging* was transformed into a country *house*; and, in another year, the inconveniences attending a stage-coach were remedied by a chariot.' He assures his readers, moreover, that he found the whole of what he was possessed of in 'small profits, bound by industry, and clasped by economy.' In 1792 the annual *profits* of his business were 5000*l.* In 1798 he retired from business, in favour of Mr. George Lackington, his cousin, who kept up the large establishment in Finsbury-square for many years; and he finally resided on a large estate he had bought at Budleigh Sulterton, Devon, where he rejoined the methodists (after abusing them in his autobiography), and where he died, aged 69, 1815. CONSTANTINE COUNT DE VOLNEY (1755—1820), was born in Brittany; and on coming to his small patrimony, he indulged his taste for travel. After examining Egypt and Syria, he resided some time in a Maronite convent on Mount Libanus, studying the oriental tongues; and he then returned to France, to publish the result of his labours. On the breaking out of the revolution, Volney, as a deputy for Anjou, embraced the liberal cause; and in 1791, appeared his 'Ruines,' a deistical work on the revolutions of empires, which was soon after practically answered by the horrible reign of Robespierre, which it contributed to bring on, and wherein Volney was imprisoned, and with much difficulty escaped with his life. From this period he was for a while silent,

taught history, and visited America, where Washington received him with friendship. Napoleon, on his elevation, did not like his anti-monarchical principles, so that he never obtained preferment during his rule; but on the restoration of the Bourbons, 1814, he was, singularly enough, constituted a peer; from which moment he constantly argued on the liberal side, as formerly, until his decease, aged 65, 1820. JEAN DE FLORIAN (1755—1794), a novel and dramatic writer of France, was born at his father's chateau in Languedoc, and through his kinsman Voltaire, became page to the duc de Penthièvre, who encouraged his taste for literature. His first work was 'Galathea;' and a succession of novels, plays, and fables, soon rendered him highly popular. During the reign of Robespierre, he was imprisoned, for having affixed to his 'Numa Pompili' (the production by which he is best known in England) some verses in praise of the unhappy Marie Antoinette; and soon after his release, which occurred not till the tyrant's death, he fell into a decline, which terminated his life at the age of 39, 1794. The pastoral romances of 'Estelle' and 'Galathea' have fully established Florian's fame; and all his works are remarkable for their good moral feeling and benevolent spirit. MULHAR RAO HOLKAR, a Mahratta soldier, became known for his conquests, as the general of the first Peshwa of that Indian district, and whom, before his death in 1766, he had almost supplanted, as chief of Malwa. His nephew, Tuckagee Holkar, succeeded, and nearly obtained all the Mahratta district; and the latter dying in 1797, left four sons, whose patrimony was usurped for a time by Scindia, the most powerful of the Mahratta chiefs. In 1802, Jeswant Rao Holkar, the third son, an able, brave, unscrupulous soldier of fortune, defeated Scindia, and re-established himself in Malwa. The marquis Wellesley, then governor-general, refused, however, to re-

cognise his title, and in 1804 commenced a war against him, which was terminated, at the end of 1805, by a peace more favourable than Holkar had reason to expect, and which left to him the greater part of his dominions. The violence of his temper ultimately grew into madness, and the last three years of his life were passed in close confinement: he died in 1811. When he was placed under restraint, his son, four years old, Mulhar Rao Holkar, succeeded to the nominal authority; all real power being of course in the hands of one or two ministers. A wretched anarchy ensued; but after the final overthrow of the Mahratta power in 1818, Mulhar was suffered to retain a small portion of his dominions, under the protection of the English. SIR RICHARD WORSLEY (1751—1805), born in the isle of Wight, succeeded to the baronetcy in his eighteenth year, and soon after visited the continent; where he cultivated his taste for antiquities by the study of the remains of ancient Rome, and made some large purchases of statues, marbles, and other articles of virtù, which, on his return to England, it formed his principal amusement to classify and arrange. Sir Richard published a 'History of the Isle of Wight,' and was about the person of king George III., as comptroller of the royal household. JOSEPH WRIGHT (1734—1797), a celebrated painter, usually styled 'Wright of Derby,' was born in that town. He visited Italy, where he made great advances in his profession, returned to England in 1755, and was elected an associate of the royal academy. His later pictures were chiefly landscapes, which are much admired for elegance of outline, and judicious management of light and shade. He fell a victim to unwearied attention to his profession, and died of a decline. PHILIP HACKERT (1737—1806), a distinguished German landscape-painter. Catherine of Russia having employed him to paint the two battles of Tschesme, count Orlov, in order to

enable the artist to form a correct notion of the explosion of a vessel, caused a Russian frigate to be blown up in his presence. The singularity of this model, many months before spoken of in all the European papers, contributed not a little to increase the fame of the picture. GIROLAMO TIRABOSCHI (1731—1794), was born at Bergamo, and was distinguished for love of learning and unwearied application even in early youth. He prevailed on his father to let him, at fifteen, commence his novitiate at Genoa, with a view to the priesthood; and on its expiration, after the usual period of two years, he was directed to give instruction for five years in the lower schools of Milan, and afterwards in Novara. He was subsequently appointed to the professorship of rhetoric at Milan, in the university of Brera; and in this situation he distinguished himself, not only as a teacher, but as an author. Several works of deep research and uncommon solidity obtained for him an offer of the place of librarian to Francis III. of Modena. Tiraboschi made use of the valuable resources thus placed at his command, to compose his celebrated work, '*Storia della Letteratura Italiana*,' which appeared successively in fourteen volumes. This production, which, in extent of learning, accuracy, completeness, and style, has scarcely an equal, extends from the commencement of intellectual cultivation in Italy, to the year 1700; and it excites so much the more wonder at the quantity and value of its contents, as it was completed in the short space of ten years; during which the author also found time, as if for recreation, to produce various other works, all highly distinguished in their kind. He died a sacrifice to incessant application, aged 63, 1794. JOHN JOACHIM ESCHENBURG (1743—1820) was born at Hamburg, went to Brunswick as a tutor, and was appointed to the professorship in the Carolinum there, an office which he filled till his death. Germany is indebted to

him for an acquaintance with many good English writers; and much value is set on his translation into German of Shakspeare. He died aged 77. ALOYS, BARON VON REDING (1755—1818), became a celebrated general and landamman of the Swiss. On the invasion of his country by the French in 1798, he was at the head of the troops raised for its defence, and gained several advantages, especially at Morgarten, over the enemy; but his forces being unequal to the contest, he was at length compelled to submission. He afterwards had a considerable share in the commotions every now and then raised to recover independence, and was in 1801 chosen landamman of all Switzerland. As he still laboured to restore his country to freedom, Buona-parte had him arrested; but he was set at liberty in a few months, and when his enemy had met with reverses in 1812 and 1813, favoured secretly the passage of the allied troops through the Swiss territories, over the Rhine. The baron died, aged sixty-three, 1818. FRANZ JOSEPH GALL (1757—1828), who was born in Suabia, became known as the founder of a new psychological system. When a boy at school, instead of attending to his studies, he wholly occupied himself in attempts to associate the dispositions of his schoolfellows with the forms of their heads, or some features of their countenances; and one important result of his observations was, that 'bull-eyed' boys, as he terms those who have prominent eyes, were invariably quarrelsome fellows. (Query, hence the significant epithet, *bullies*?) One thing led to another; and the form of the skull being at last taken by the ardent young German as a capital basis whereon to build his airy castles, he, by dint of visits to lunatic asylums, and to persons remarkable for any peculiar talent, gained a sufficient number of notes, wherefrom to spin lectures, which he commenced giving at his house in Vienna (having by that time proceed-

ed M.D.), 1796. A doctrine so new as that described under the head of 'Phrenology,' p. 80, so subversive as it was of all that had been previously taught in psychology, produced no little excitement in the world; but Dr. Gall, careless of hostility, went on lecturing, with his constitutional calmness. When he had made 'Dr. Johann Gaspar Spurzheim, a highly attractive man, of popular manners, not only a convert, but his coadjutor, the science of *craniology* made great strides; and ashamed of that original and correct title, the projectors gave it the more aspiring one of *phrenology*. Every European capital but Paris and London, had admitted the lecturers, and listened to them with rapture; but Napoleon, who hated all 'German geniuses,' set his face strongly against their proceedings, when they had made a noise in Paris, 1807; and both Gall and Spurzheim came thence to London for a time, 1813. The amiable character of the former, and the brilliant manners of the latter, ensured them listeners and friends, if not proselytes; but it was found that the pair were already somewhat divided in sentiment, and though Dr. Spurzheim remained long a lecturer in Britain, Dr. Gall soon returned to Paris, where he continued till his decease, 1828, in his 72d year. Dr. Spurzheim left England for America, 1832, to spread his opinions; but died soon after his arrival there, at Boston, aged 56. SARAH TRIMMER, daughter of Mr. Kirby, clerk of the works at Kew, was born at Ipswich, and early instructed in classical, as well as English literature. In 1762 she married Mr. Trimmer, by whom she had twelve children; and for their advancement she wrote a host of religious and moral books, which have been adopted by most families. She died, aged 69, 1810. ANNA LETITIA BARBAULD, daughter of Mr. Aikin, a dissenting preacher, was born at Ribworth, Leicestershire, and received a classical education from her father, who presided over the

dissenting academy at Warrington. In 1774 she married Mr. Barbauld, a dissenting divine; and at Palgrave, Suffolk, his residence, she wrote her 'Hymns for Children,' which are justly considered of standard merit in conveying the first rudiments of instruction to the infant mind. Mrs. Barbauld eventually resided at Stoke Newington, to be near her brother, who was a physician there; and she occupied her hours in editing a collection of English novels, and a selection of British essayists. She died, aged 82, 1825. CHARLOTTE SMITH, daughter of Mr. Turner, a gentleman of property in Sussex, married at a very early age Mr. Smith, a West India merchant, whose extravagance brought him to a gaol; in which condition his affectionate wife endeavoured to purchase him comforts by commencing author. She was soon distinguished for her novels of 'The Old Manor House,' 'Romance of Real Life,' &c., productions of great merit, though imbued too much with her own sufferings; and she also wrote 'Rural Walks,' and other books for youth; which, until the vast influx of later publications, were extremely popular. She died, aged 57, 1806. THOMAS PAINE, son of a quaker staymaker of Thetford, Norfolk, obtained an exciseman's post at Lewes, where he also kept a grocer's shop. Under Franklin's patronage, he quitted his business to visit America, and preach up the separation from the mother-country; and in the same spirit, he returned to England, 1792, to publish his 'Rights of Man,' in reply to Burke's 'Reflections on the French Revolution.' A prosecution on that account by the attorney-general occasioned his flight to France, where he was at once chosen a member of the National Convention; but when, after voting for the trial of Louis XVI., he voted *against* his execution, he was arrested by the jacobins, and committed to the prison of the Luxembourg—where a dangerous illness saved him from the guillotine. On the fall of

Robespierre he was released. In 1795 appeared his attack upon Revelation, entitled 'The Age of Reason,' being an investigation of true and fabulous Theology; a production which forfeited the countenance of by far the greater part of his American connexions, and obliged him once more to find refuge in France. He had lost his first wife, and been separated from a second by mutual consent; and he now obtained a female companion in the person of a madame de Bonneville, the wife of a French bookseller, who, with her two sons, accompanied him in 1802 to America, where the remainder of his life, by the account of all parties, was passed in extreme wretchedness. Universally shunned for his continued gross attacks upon religion, he sought solace in drunkenness, and died a victim to that species of intemperance, aged 72, 1809. CLAUDE LOUIS BERTHOLLET, a French chemist, born in Savoy, who after studying medicine at Turin, became physician to the duke of Orleans at Paris. His analysis of ammonia, azote, and chlorine, first gave him a name; and being made professor of chemistry in the Polytechnic school, he rapidly rose to celebrity. When Buonaparte in 1798 set off on his Egyptian expedition, he took with him, among other men of science, Berthollet, who, on his return with the general to Europe in the following year, was rewarded for the zeal he had shown in providing, by the resources of his genius, for the exigencies of the French army. On the restoration of Louis XVIII., 1814, he was made a count; and as he did not take his seat in the chamber created by Buonaparte on his return from Elba, he obtained his right and dignity on the second restoration of the king. Not long after his return from Egypt he fixed his residence at the village of Arcueil, near Paris, where he associated a body of scientific students, who aided him in his experimental investigations; and there he died, aged 74, 1822. His 'Recherches

sur les loix d'Affinité,' displays much thought and ingenuity, and is entitled to great praise, as affording many valuable hints to the chemical professor, on a subject which, if brought to perfection, would vie with the great discovery of Newton. PHILIP LOUTHERBOURG (1740—1812), born at Strasburg, studied painting under Tischbein, and afterwards under Casanova, and displayed great talents in the delineation of battles and hunting pieces. After residing at Paris, he came to London, 1771, and was soon employed to decorate Drury-lane theatre and the Opera-house. In 1782 he was chosen a royal academician, and he at length devoted his time to landscape. He was a highly eccentric man, and at one period seems to have been actually insane upon the subject of animal magnetism, to which imposture he was a singular dupe. He died in England, aged 72, 1812. The landscapes of Louthembourg are celebrated for their art, rather than for their nature. The painter, though his scenery is sometimes beautiful, indulged in glaring colours, and violent contrasts; and his skill consisted in knowing where best for effect to plant a tree, pour a cascade, drop his cattle, scatter his sheep, or raise a ruined tower or crumbling temple. He also painted a few historical subjects, such as lord Howe's Victory, and the Review of Warley Camp; and he at one time devised what he called the 'Eidophusikon,' (likeness of nature,) an exhibition wherein he made his pictures move accompanied by music, something on the plan of the more recent Diorama. ALEXANDER WILSON (1766—1813), born at Paisley, left the weaver's occupation to travel with his brother, a pedler; and eventually crossing to America, began to take an interest in the ornithology of the United States. Though little encouraged, he contrived to publish no less than seven beautiful volumes of his 'American Ornithology,' wherein he notices more than forty new species of his

own discovery. His death occurred in a manner characteristic of the man, at Philadelphia. While sitting at a window with a friend, he caught a glimpse of a 'rara avis,' for which he had been looking out in vain; and, rushing out of the house with his gun, he, after an arduous chase, wherein he swam a river, caught the object of his pursuit. The exertion, however, brought on a dysentery, of which he died in ten days, entreating as he expired, 'that he might be buried where the birds could sing over his grave.'

JEAN DE LA HARPE (1739—1803), the dramatic critic, was the son of a Swiss officer in the French service, and was born at Paris. Having a natural taste for authorship, he devoted himself to play-writing, and what was then in much repute, to the composition of encomiastic 'eloges' of certain great men; who, however, were mostly of the freethinking turn. Although hailing the Revolution, at its outbreak, as the harbinger of political regeneration, La Harpe soon found himself suspected, and in prison; and his incarceration had the admirable effect of making him a Christian, since it was his lot to be in the same cell with the good bishop of St. Brieux. Escaping from death, he sought retirement for the future, and died therein, aged 64, 1803. His commentary on Racine's dramas is his best critical work; but his 'Lycæum, or Complete Course of Literature,' is the production on which his fame, as an original thinker, rests.

JACQUES BERNARDIN DE ST. PIERRE (1737—1814), born at Havre, was the descendant of St. Pierre, the patriotic mayor of Calais at the period of Edward III.'s capture of that town; and, after an excellent mathematical education, having money, he rambled from country to country, until, tired of doing nothing, he entered, first the Russian service, and then that of the Poles against the Russians, as an engineer, in which latter capacity he was made prisoner. He is next found in the French army, also as an engineer; but so eccentric

were his habits, that some one, to get rid of him, gave him the post of intendant of the botanical gardens at Paris; in which capacity, amid the storms of the Revolution, he gave to the world the beautiful tales of 'Paul et Virginie,' and 'The Indian Cottage;' on which his reputation as an author may fairly depend. This singular, but apparently well-intentioned man, was one of the few who passed the great Revolution with money in their pockets; and he died in comfortable circumstances, and in retirement, aged 77, 1814.

LOUIS BOUTAINVILLE, an illustrious French navigator, had the command, in 1768, of an expedition of discovery, fitted out by his government; and in his passage round the world, visited the Society Isles, New Guinea, &c., and gained much important insight into the habits of the people of the countries he explored, of which he subsequently gave an interesting account. After escaping so many perils by sea and land, he was at length torn to pieces by a revolutionary mob in the streets of Paris, 1792.

MARIE JOSEPH CHENIER (1762—1811), was son of the French consul in Turkey, and born at Constantinople. Though much attached to poetical composition, he became a great admirer of the Revolution; and, while his dramas were played to regicide critics, his odes were sung by the murderous mobs of Paris, at the transportation of the ashes of Marat to the Pantheon, at the festival in honour of Rousseau, and on many similar occasions. As a deputy of the national convention, he voted for the death of Louis XVI.; and when his own brother, André Chenier, a man of opposite principles, who had offended the jacobins by writing in favour of order, had been condemned to death, and a wish had been expressed during a sitting of the legislative body to save him, the unnatural Marie Joseph exclaimed, 'Si mon frère est coupable, qu'il perisse!' and André was accordingly guillotined, 1794, at the age of 31. This unfeeling conduct

attracted much notice, even in that bloodthirsty time ; and the deputy had many letters sent to him from the departments, with this epigraph, '*Cain rendez nous votre frère !*' So pliant was Chenier in principle, that he successively displayed his devotion to the directorial, consular, and imperial governments ; in consequence of which he was one of the council of five hundred in 1798, and in 1799, was appointed a member of the tribunate. He died at Paris, aged 49, 1811. JEAN DUCIS (1733—1817), a distinguished French tragic poet, was born at Versailles, and studied at the college of Orleans. After passing many years as a general writer, he at thirty-five adopted the course which Terence is said to have done as respects the works of Menander ; giving to the public the plays of the English Shakspeare in a French dress. '*Hamlet*,' '*Romeo and Juliet*,' '*Lear*,' '*Macbeth*,' and '*King John*,' were produced in succession ; and all were eminently successful but the last. Ducis was soon chosen to succeed Voltaire in the French academy ; but devoting himself wholly to the drama, and professing royalist principles, he took no part in the events of the Revolution, and even rejected the favours proffered him by Buonaparte. Upon the restoration of Louis XVIII., he had an interview with that monarch, much to his gratification ; and he died, aged 84, 1817. Ducis, although adapted to write from a good model, was inferior in original composition ; and in all he produced, beyond his paraphrases of Shakspeare, he wants both harmony and connexion. But his paraphrases have all the merit which Terence could claim ; namely, that, although working upon a foreign basis, he instilled a spirit into his imitations, which gave them high claims to originality. HENRI PESTALOZZI, famous for the invention of a new system of education, was born of respectable but poor parents in Switzerland, 1745. Left an orphan early, he adopted from inclination the employment of a teacher ; and having done some good amongst

the indigent youth of Zurich, by instilling into them at least moral principles (the religious he left to their parents), he was placed over the orphan-house at Stantz by the Helvetic government, 1799, whence he removed to Baugdorf, and ultimately to the castle of Yverdun. In 1803 he formed one of the Helvetic consulta summoned to Paris by Napoleon ; but notwithstanding the French emperor's notice, that of Alexander of Russia, and of his own government, he died, through his ill-regulated generosity and careless habits (certainly not from any vicious appropriation of his gains), in comparative poverty, aged 82, at Brugg, 1827. The system of Pestalozzi was in its main feature (that of mutual instruction), like that of Bell and Lancaster : a system, certainly, when applied to a particular range of school studies (especially to arithmetic), likely to advance and benefit the pupil. Every experienced teacher, however, knows that there is a limit to the advantage derivable from all *viva voce* and mechanical methods of instruction ; and that a good basis in the general principles of physics, is of far higher value than an acquaintance, complete, as far as it can go, with the nature and use of a few physical products, the *objects* of the Pestalozzi school. Pestalozzi was eminently calculated for the pastoral duty which he originally undertook, of causing a mass of young semibarbarous people to think. His scholars were the children of the poor ; and unaccustomed as they were to the sympathies of home, they regarded their instructor as a parent, which his persuasive and affectionate manners warranted. JEAN ROLAND (1732—1793), a French revolutionary statesman who was brought into notice by the talents of his wife, Jeanne l'hilipon, an engraver's daughter, and author of '*Travels in England and Switzerland*.' He became acquainted with Brissot and other popular leaders, and through their influence was made minister of the interior. On the

abolition of the monarchy, (though he and his wife had hailed the Revolution as the commencement of the golden age!) he was involved in the proscription of the Girondists, but escaped to Rouen. His wife, however, who remained to plead his cause at the bar of the convention, was, though for the moment left alone, ultimately seized and guillotined as a conspirator against 'the unity and indivisibility of the republic,' 1793; and when Roland heard of her execution, he set off towards Paris, and at some miles from Rouen, sat down on a bank, and deliberately put an end to his existence with a sword, being then aged 61. His 'Dictionary of Arts and Manufactures' forms part of the 'Encyclopédie Méthodique.' JEAN BAILLY (1736—1793), born at Paris, quitted the study of painting for that of astronomy; and becoming known by his treatise on the satellites of Jupiter, was elected an associate of the royal academy of sciences, 1770. He reached the highest degree of celebrity between that year and 1785, by the publication of his histories of ancient, modern, and oriental astronomy; wherein he gives accurate accounts of the origin and progress of the science, and of the lives, writings, and discoveries of previous astronomers. At the opening of the revolution, M. Bailly was chosen a deputy of the *tiers-état* in the states-general; and he was president of the first national assembly, when the king's proclamation was issued, ordering it to disperse; on which occasion he called on the members to swear that they would never separate till they had obtained a 'free constitution.' On the day the Bastille was destroyed, 1789, he was elected mayor of Paris; but though greatly aiding the revolutionists while in that office, he gave offence to the people by ordering the soldiery to fire on the mob in the Champ de Mars, July 17, 1791. At the close of that year the constituent assembly was dissolved, and M.

Bailly retired to private life; but, in the subsequent reign of terror, he was denounced as the enemy of the republic; and after the mockery of such a trial as was usual in the case of the prejudged victims of the demagogues who then ruled France, he was guillotined Nov. 11, 1793, with circumstances of great insult and barbarity, aged 57. RICHARD PRICE (1723—1791), born in Glamorganshire, became a preacher among the Socinians at Hackney, 1753, and remained there in that capacity till his decease. After the publication of some tracts on religion and morals, he was made D.D. by the university of Glasgow; and when, in 1771, he had written on 'Annuities,' he became regarded as a talented mathematical calculator, inasmuch that Mr. Pitt, on becoming prime-minister, consulted him concerning a reduction of the national debt. The establishment of the sinking-fund was the result of the doctor's recommendation. Hailing the French revolution as the source of unmixed benefit to mankind, he published a sermon 'On the Love of our Country,' wherein he asserts the right of the people to cashier their rulers; and this gave rise to Mr. Burke's famous 'Reflections,' wherein the doctor is treated as a political incendiary. Certainly his allusions to the fate of Louis XVI. are deserving of the severest censure. Dr. Price died, aged 68. JEAN BRISSOT (1754—1793), the son of a lawyer of Chartres, in the Orleannois, espoused the principles of the French revolution, married Melle. Dupont, a young lady employed under Madame de Genlis in educating the daughters of the duke of Orleans, and came to England to avoid persecution, and to write in favour of the republican change in his country. On returning secretly to Paris, 1784, he was seized, on the charge of writing a libel, and imprisoned in the Bastille; but his wife's interest with the Orleans family obtained his release, and he at length crossed to America,

1788, with the quixotic intention of forming a republican colony of Frenchmen in that land of liberty. When the revolutionary party had got ahead, he returned to France, and became president of the Jacobin club; in 1791, he was chosen secretary of the legislative assembly; and in the latter capacity he soon became known as the head of a party composed chiefly of members from the department of the Gironde, whence they were indifferently styled Girondists, or Brissotines. During a brief period, he was at the summit of power; but the defection of Dumouriez shook his party, and, upon quarrelling with the Jacobin club, he was expelled that society. As he had expressed himself opposed to the king's death, he was marked, on the rise of Robespierre, for punishment; and when, on the ruin of his party, 1793, he was escaping to Switzerland, his flight was intercepted, and he was tried with twenty-one of his friends, and ordered for execution. The whole number perished with great fortitude by the guillotine, October 25th. GEORGE DANTON (1759—1794), born at Arcis-sur-Aube, entered the profession of the law, and became a powerful advocate of popular rights, at the opening of the French revolution. On the detention of Louis XVI. at Varennes, he proposed his dethronement to the assembly in the Champ de Mars; and though pursued by duns, and threatened with arrest daily for debt, he appeared constantly in the disgraceful scenes of 1792, till chosen minister of justice—in which capacity Robespierre and the other partisans of anarchy rallied round him as their protector, on hearing of the Prussians having entered Champagne. His ascendancy on that occasion excited the jealousy of Robespierre, and was the cause of his destruction. After warmly advising the king's execution, he took a leading part in the proscription of the Girondists; and he was the first to procure a decree for the formation

of the revolutionary 'tribunal.' He had thus heaped up the pile for his own immolation; for Robespierre caused him to be brought before it as an enemy to the republic, and he was executed by the guillotine, aged 35. JOHN HEINRICH DANNECKER (1758—1841), born at Stutgard, of poor parents, became the Nestor of German sculptors. His style was formed chiefly on the antique; and his compositions are full of truth, life, and nature. His most distinguished surviving pupil is Wagner, at Rome. The artist, for many years previously to his decease, aged 83, had retired from all active employment, and fallen into a state of second childhood and oblivion. JEAN BAPTIST LOUVET, one of the chief actors in the French revolution, began giving aid thereto by a work in disparagement of marriage, and subsequently voted for the trial and death of the king. His personal hatred of Robespierre, however, caused his outlawry, when that other scoundrel's party had gained the ascendancy; but on the death of the great terrorist, Louvet again appeared in Paris, recovered his seat in the convention, March, 1795, and was made its president in the June following. He was afterward one of the council of 500, and died, 1797. He enjoys a dishonourable fame to this day in France, as the author of one or two most licentious novels, worthy of the principles which guided his life. LOUIS, DUKE OF ORLEANS (1747—1793), better known as 'Egalité,' was descended from the younger son of Louis XIII., and known early as the duc de Chartres. Being disappointed in his hope to succeed his father-in-law, the duc de Penthièvre, as grand-admiral, he entered as a volunteer on board the squadron of the count d'Orvilliers, and was present at the engagement with the English off Ushant, where he acted with extreme cowardice. Instead of being promoted in the navy on his return, the post of colonel-general of hussars was created for him, and he became chief

of the French Freemasons. Organized as this last-named body was at the time in France, the principles of democracy were sown in a bosom already harbouring resentment against the government for supposed slights; and on coming to his title and estates, the (now) duc d'Orleans, 1787, adopted various methods to obtain popularity among the lower orders. In the disputes between the court and parliaments, he constantly opposed the former; and when, for his rudeness to the king at the session of 1787, he was exiled to Villers Coteret, the liberal journals throughout France declared his cause that of the people. When the States-general assembled, he, as necessarily a member, protested against all the decrees of the chamber of nobles, and at length went so far as to join, with other members, the 'tiers état,' and form the National Assembly. It was then that ambition prompted him to procure the formidable post of lieutenant-general of the kingdom; but he was unable thus to reduce the king to subjection under himself; and his want of capacity to profit by the commotions to which he had contributed, compelled him to become the passive instrument of the jacobins. When elected a member of the National Convention, 1792, he exchanged the name and titles of his family for that of *Egalité*; but soon after voting for the death of the king, his kinsman, he was arrested, and thrown into prison at Marseilles, as a secret enemy of his party; and, after six months' detention, tried at Paris, and executed by the guillotine, November 6, 1793, being then in his 47th year. It is perhaps needless to say that, by a subsequent revolution, the son of this misguided prince is now (1843) sovereign of France. JOSEPH DE LALANDE (1732—1807), born at Bourg-en-Bresse, of a good family, became early attached to astronomy; and though obliged by his parents to make the law his profession, he devoted all his leisure to the more congenial pursuit of his

mind. In 1762 he was made professor of astronomy in the college de France; previously to which he had made many curious discoveries connected with the moon and comets. He now found himself in his proper element; and, inspired with an ardent zeal for the advancement of science, he attracted around him a number of pupils, forming a school, whence proceeded a host of young astronomers, who filled the observatories, and introduced into the navy the use of the best instruments, and the most accurate modes of making calculations. He remained safe during the revolution; and though accused of atheism and jacobinism, he hazarded his life continually to save those condemned to the guillotine, giving an asylum to the priests who had escaped the massacres of the Abbaye, and making them pass for his astronomical assistants. He even wrote a treatise in favour of monarchy, and was scrupulously attentive to the outward forms of the Romish church. He died aged 75. His chief works are '*Traité de l'Astronomie*,' and '*Histoire Céleste Française*.' JEAN PORTALIS (1746—1807), born at Beausset, was a distinguished advocate of the parliament of Aix at the outbreak of the revolution; when, being suspected of favouring monarchy, he was arrested, and kept in prison till the fall of Robespierre. As was the frequent case of the old regime, the influence of a prison, and an escape from the guillotine, in the end caused the advocate to become tinged with the new principles; and he even became secretary to the council of ancients, 1795, and then president. As, however, his early notions induced him to oppose the violent measures of the directors, he was proscribed in 1797, and took refuge in Holstein, until recalled by Buonaparte, now first consul, 1800. He was hereupon made a councillor of state, and charged with the care of religious affairs; and it was he who arranged the famous concordat with the imprisoned pope.

He died aged 61. **THE TWO ANQUETILS.**—*Louis* (1728—1808), prior of the abbey of La Roe in Anjou, was curé of La Villette, near Paris, when the revolution began; and when thrown into prison with other ecclesiastics, began his 'Histoire Universelle,' which he eventually published in twelve volumes. As he escaped the guillotine, and was prudent enough to leave politics alone, he was chosen a member of the French Institute, and much employed as an historical collector by the government of Napoleon. His great work is a 'History of the Wars and Treaties of the Reigns of Louis XIV., XV., and XVI.,' and he died, aged 80. *Abram* (1731—1805), his brother, styled Anquetil du Perron, to escape going into the church, got enrolled as a private soldier; and was present at the taking of Pondicherry by the English. While in India, he devoted every leisure moment to the study of Sanscrit, and made progress enough to translate the 'Vendidadé Sâdâ,' a dictionary of the language. On his return to Paris, after visiting London and Oxford, he was made oriental interpreter in the king's library, with a pension; and he was permitted, when the violence of the revolution had subsided, to pursue his literary career in peace, publishing from time to time on such eastern subjects as the 'Life of Zoroaster,' 'Oriental Legislation,' &c. He died aged 74. **RICHARD CUMBERLAND** (1732—1811), son of the bishop of Clonfert, was born in the house of the celebrated Dr. Bentley, Trinity college, Cambridge, whose youngest daughter was his mother. After an education at Westminster and Trinity college, he became a fellow of the latter, but did not take holy orders. His first occupation was as private secretary to lord Halifax, through whom he obtained the post of crown agent for Nova Scotia, 1769, and whom he accompanied to Ireland when he went as lord lieutenant. Mr. Cumberland's complete devotion to literature,

however, occasioned him to be passed over when his patron became secretary of state; except, indeed, that he then received from him the almost sinecure office of clerk of reports in trade and plantations. Eventually lord George Germaine made him secretary to the board of trade; and in 1780 he was employed on a confidential mission to the courts of Lisbon and Madrid. He in some way so offended the ministry in the latter, that they withheld 5000*l.* of his expenses, and he was compelled to sell his hereditary property to avoid a gaol. At the same juncture, Mr. Burke's economy bill broke up the board of trade, and left him with only a poor pension. He passed the remainder of his life as a writer, at Tunbridge Wells and London, and died in the latter city, aged 79, 1811. The irritable temper of Mr. Cumberland exposed him to many molestations; and Sheridan's satire of him in *Sir Fretful Plagiary*, and Garrick's designation of him as 'the man without a skin,' have served to register the fact. As an author, he excelled in comedy; and his best productions are the 'West Indian,' 'Wheel of Fortune,' 'Jew,' and 'Fashionable Lover.' Of these the 'West Indian' is the most popular, though quite unnatural in its plot, and not giving any very just images of real life. **HON. SIR CHARLES STUART** (1753—1801), son of the Marquis of Bute, entered the army, and was appointed aide-de-camp to the viceroy of Ireland. In 1775 he was sent to America, where he distinguished himself on many occasions; and at the beginning of the French revolution he was employed in the Mediterranean, and subdued Corsica, 1796. In 1797 he was sent to Portugal at the head of an auxiliary corps of 8000 men; and his measures both protected the country from the designs of the French directory, and contributed to the future success of the British arms (under Wellington) in the Peninsula. After conquering Minorca, 1798, he was summoned to the de-

fence of Sicily; and he effectually guarded the latter from the threatened danger, arising from the French invasion of Naples. At the close of the same year he sailed to Malta, which Buonaparte had seized on his way to Egypt; and, after having taken the fortress of Valetta by blockade, returned to England. At his suggestion, Malta was detained by Great Britain—a detention which formed Napoleon's plea for the rupture of the treaty of Amiens. Sir Charles died, aged 48, 1801. HENRY KIRKE WHITE, son of a butcher at Nottingham, while clerk to an attorney, employed his leisure hours in the composition of poetry; and being introduced to Mr. Wilberforce, that gentleman placed him at St. John's, Cambridge, where consumption carried him off at the age of 20, 1806. 'Clifton Grove,' is the only poem of length he produced: it has many beauties of the pathetic kind, but there is a gloomy and querulous strain in all this young man's productions, the result of ill health and disappointed views, which will probably ever confine them to a small circle of readers. WILLIAM HAYLEY, a gentleman of some fortune in Sussex, is known for his 'Triumph of Temper,' a poem which has been generally admired, though lord Byron observed, 'it tried his temper to read it.' His 'Life of Cowper,' whose friendship he cultivated, was long very popular, though latterly eclipsed by the more sterling biography of the poet by Southey. Mr. Hayley died, aged 75, 1820. ROBERT BLOOMFIELD, a ploughman, who, through the patronage of Mr. Capel Loft, was enabled to give to the world his 'Farmer's Boy,' a poem on which his fame rests. It is singularly regular and smooth, considering the author's defective education; but its principal merit consists in the description of rural scenes, which none but a practical farmer could so accurately paint. He died 1823, aged 57. EDWARD WHITAKER (1750—1818), son of sergeant Whitaker,

completed his studies at Christchurch, Oxford, and obtained the livings of St. Mildred and All Saints, Canterbury. He latterly kept a school at Egham, and wrote on many scriptural subjects; but he is chiefly remembered as the founder of that useful London institution, the Refuge for the Destitute. He died aged 68. THOMAS DUNHAM WHITAKER (1759—1821), born at Rainham, Norfolk, of which his father was curate, completed his studies at St. John's, Cambridge, took holy orders, and became perpetual curate of the chapel at Holme, founded by his ancestors, but rebuilt and re-endowed by himself. He was afterwards presented to the living of Whalley, and to that of Blackburne, 1818, acted as a magistrate, and died much respected, aged 62. Dr. Whitaker is chiefly known as an indefatigable antiquary, and for his excellent publications concerning the county of York. JOHN LEYDEN (1775—1811), born at Denholm, Roxburghshire, was educated at Edinburgh, and became a kirk minister, 1798; but subsequently quitted the sacred profession, and went as a surgeon to Madras, 1803. Here, in addition to the Sanscrit, Persian, Arabic, and Hindustani languages, he made himself acquainted with the Malay and other semi-barbarous tongues; and these accomplishments, with his practice as a physician, obtained him the office of judge of the twenty-four Pargunnahs of Calcutta. His leisure hours were still devoted to literature; and he contributed many valuable papers to the 'Asiatic Researches,' tending to explain the origin of the Malay nations. He accompanied lord Minto in the expedition against Java, 1811, and died in that island in the same year, aged 36. CHRISTOPHER FEELENG (1741—1817) was for thirty years professor of history and Greek in the Gymnasium at Hamburg, and author of a most valuable 'Geography and History of the United States of America,' in seven octavo volumes. JOHANN

EBEL (1764—1830), born at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, resided chiefly at Zurich, and wrote an excellent 'Guide to Travellers in Switzerland,' and a work on the geology of the Alps. **PIERRE GINGUENE** (1748—1816), born at Rennes, is celebrated among modern French writers for his 'Histoire Littéraire de l'Italie,' in nine volumes. He ran the risk of being guillotined, during the reign of terror, on account of his moderate opinions; but died at peace in Paris, aged 68. **RÉNÉ, ABBÉ HAÛY** (1743—1822), the son of a weaver, was born at St. Just, and became a chorister in the college of cardinal Lemoine. The lectures of Daubenton caused him to turn his attention to mineralogy; and the accidental fall of a specimen of calcareous spath, crystallized into prisms, further induced him to make crystallography his study; the whole theory of which branch of science is founded on his consequent observations. He was respected throughout the revolution, and subsequently by Napoleon, on account of his non-interference with political matters; and on the restoration of monarchy, 1814, he continued to lecture on his favourite science in the capital. **DON GASPAR DE JOVELLANOS** (1749—1812), born at Gijon, in the Asturias, became counsellor of state to Charles III. of Spain. As minister of finance under Charles IV., he incurred banishment for proposing a tax upon the higher ranks of clergy, to relieve the debt occasioned by the war with republican France, 1794; but he was recalled, 1799, and made minister of justice for the interior. Through the influence of Godoy, prince of the peace, he was again exiled, 1800, and remained prisoner in a convent at Majorca till the fall of Godoy, and the invasion of Spain by the French, 1808. On his return to Madrid, he espoused the cause of Joseph Buonaparte; but, being suspected by his countrymen of promoting the plans of France for the subjugation of Spain, he was assassinated during a popular insurrection, 1812.

His works are numerous; but his most valuable production is 'Informe sobre la Ley Agraria.' **THOMAS JOHNES** (1748—1816), born at Ludlow, Salop, was educated at Eton, and Jesus college, Oxford, and became member of parliament, first for Cardigan, and subsequently for the county of Radnor. As a country gentleman, he laudably occupied himself in the improvement of his landed property at Hafod, in Cardiganshire, by planting trees to a considerable extent. He also built for himself an elegant mansion, and collected a noble library, to which he added a printing establishment, whence proceeded the works on which his literary reputation is founded. These consist of splendid editions of the chronicles of Froissart and Monstrelet, and similar works, all translated by himself from the French. **ERENNE MEHUL** (1763—1817), born at Givet, in France, became assistant organist in the abbey of Valledieu at twelve, and then went to Paris, to study under Glück. His 'Euphrosine et Coradin' was performed at the comic opera, 1790, and established his fame: it was rapidly followed by 'Stratonice,' 'Irato,' 'Joseph,' and other operas. The composer contrived to get safely through the revolution, was a member of the Institute, 1796, and held the post of an inspector of instruction at the Conservatory of Music, from its institution in 1795 till its suppression in 1815. **WILLIAM NICHOLSON** (1758—1815), born in London, went to India, as a sailor, and then became agent on the continent for Mr. Wedgwood, the celebrated potter. At length he settled in London as a teacher of mathematics, and published many useful compilations on chemistry and natural philosophy; but misfortune seemed to attend all his speculations, and he died in poverty. **GUILLAUME OLIVIER** (1756—1814), born at Frejus, became a physician, but devoted his chief time to entomology. The revolution drove him from Paris, 1792, and he then ob-

tained a diplomatic mission to Persia, though the minister Roland, in the confusion, could not obtain funds to pay the envoy. With Bruguières, another naturalist, he travelled through Egypt, Greece, Turkey, and Persia, and published a narrative of his visit on his return to Paris, 1799, especially interesting to naturalists. A study of the habits of insects is highly valuable in one point of view. It is fearful to reflect on the ravages of some of their tribes; and it is matter of fact, that the hop plantations in England were in one year alone (1825) so injured by 'the fly,' as to cause a loss of revenue of 400,000*l.* to the country. DAVID RICARDO (1772—1823) was son of a Dutch merchant, who was a Jew, and was born in London. His early marriage with a quakeress offended his parent; but though he lost his countenance, the friends of the old merchant aided him, and he entered the Stock Exchange. In that establishment he acquired a large fortune; and when brought into public notice by works on the currency, rent, &c., he obtained a seat in parliament for Portarlington; having previously exchanged Judaism for the tenets of Socinus. His best work is a treatise on Political Economy and Taxation, which gives a clear and straightforward history of the origin and fluctuations of national income and expenditure. Mr. Ricardo died at his seat of Gatcomb Park, Gloucestershire, aged 51. SAMUEL WHITEHEAD (1758—1815), born in London, was educated at Eton, and St. John's, Cambridge, and then made the tour of Europe with Mr., afterwards archdeacon, Coxe. Soon after marrying the daughter of sir Charles, afterwards earl, Grey, he was, 1790, elected member for Steyning, but afterwards for Bedford, which last he represented till his decease. He was the constant supporter of Mr. Fox against the Pitt ministry, favoured the French revolution, impeached lord Melville, and finally, from being greatly harassed with the concerns

of Drury-lane theatre, of which he was a principal proprietor, became deranged, and put a period to his existence, in his 57th year. He succeeded to his father's valuable brewery, and carried on its extensive business to the last. JOHN AIKIN (1747—1822), born at Kibworth, Leicestershire, son of Dr. Thomas Aikin, a dissenter, and schoolmaster, settled as a surgeon at Warrington, where he had been educated. He became known by publishing several things with his sister, Mrs. Barbauld, and by a translation of Tacitus; and this led to an acquaintance with Dr. Priestley and Gilbert Wakefield. He afterwards practised as a physician at Yarmouth, but gave offence to the people there by his radical notions, which seem the necessary accompaniment of dissent. His violence in favour of the French revolution at length obliged him to escape to London, 1792, where he became editor of Mr., afterwards sir Richard, Phillips's Monthly magazine; and then engaged with Dr. Enfield in the compilation of a general biographical dictionary, which, after vast delay, was completed in ten volumes quarto, 1815. Dr. Aikin died aged 75. PATRICK BRYDONE (1741—1819), born in Scotland, received a liberal education, and went as travelling tutor with Mr. Beckford (author of *Vathek*), and other gentlemen. The tour he then made was the subject matter of his very popular *Travels in Sicily and Malta*, which, however, display a considerable portion of free-thinking; but that licence did not prevent his obtaining the lucrative post of comptroller of the stamp-office, which he held till his death, at the age of 78. MARIE FRANÇOIS BICHAT (1771—1802), born at Thoirette, became celebrated as a physician. He was medical professor at the Hotel Dieu; and in that capacity wrote some talented works on anatomy and physiology. JOSEPH BANKS (1743—1820), born at his father's estate, Revesby-abbey, Lincolnshire, was educated at Eton and Oxford. Hav-

ing a great taste for natural history, he accompanied captain Cook in his first voyage round the world, to gather specimens, 1768; and in 1772 he visited Iceland and the Western isles, with the same object. In 1778 he was made a baronet, and elected president of the Royal Society; and he died, much respected, aged 77, at his seat, Spring Grove, Middlesex. The additions sir Joseph made to science are only to be found in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' and the documents of other learned bodies, as he published scarcely at all. JOHN BELL, born at Edinburgh, was eminent as a surgeon; and his 'Principles of Surgery' is a well-known work. He died at Rome, 1820, leaving 'Observations on Italy,' a very sensible book, for publication. HENRY NUGENT BELL, a student of the Inner Temple, is memorable for his talent in genealogical research. To him the present noble family of Huntingdon owes its elevation; Mr. Bell having, with inexpressible pains, proved, to the satisfaction of the house of peers, the right of Hans Francis Hastings, Esq., to the earldom, after a supposed extinction of thirty years, 1819. Of the curious mode in which the restored earl was obliged to get possession of the estates belonging to his title, Mr. Bell wrote a very interesting account. He died 1822. JOHN BONNYCASTLE, born at Whitechurch, Bucks, of respectable parents, had little education, but followed the bent of his own mind towards mathematics, and by some means became tutor in that branch of physics to the sons of the earl of Pomfret. He by that means obtained a mathematical mastership at Woolwich, and held the post for forty years, till his decease in 1821. His elementary works are acknowledged to be most useful, and his introduction to algebra especially so. JEAN CORVISSART (1755—1821), born in Champagne, rose to eminence as a physician during the French revolution. On the establishment of the School of Health at Paris, 1795, he was chosen first clinical pro-

fessor, Napoleon made him his body physician, and in 1811 he was elected a member of the Institute. His best work is on the diseases of the heart. He died aged 66, having been in favour even with the restored royal house. LOUIS CARNOT, born in Burgundy, rose in the engineers during the revolution, and was a member of the committee of public safety, in conjunction with Robespierre, Barrère, &c. In that office he had the especial care of military affairs, and displayed a marked hatred of the nobility; but as he certainly seems to have scorned the secret modes of villany practised by his colleagues, he was exempted from arrest when Robespierre fell, and was chosen one of the five members of the executive directory, 1795. In 1797 he was banished for his supposed connexion with a plot to restore the monarchy; but Buonaparte, when first consul, recalled him, and made him minister of war. At a later period he was inspector of reviews; and on his retiring from the service, the emperor, though he had always accused him of an ignorance of military affairs, gave him a pension of 20,000 francs. He lived in retirement until Napoleon's retreat from Moscow, when he was intrusted with the defence of Antwerp; and on Napoleon's return from Elba, he was appointed minister of the interior. On the final deposition of his master, he retired once more, and died in voluntary exile, 1823. Carnot was an unflinching republican; and his fidelity to Buonaparte was of course based on the conviction in his mind, that France would become permanently a commonwealth after his decease. He was an able mathematician, and wrote on the 'Calcul Infinitesimal,' 'La Géométrie de Position,' &c. MADAME CATALANI, a native of Italy, was long known at the King's theatre, London, for her transcendent vocal abilities. She retired from the stage in 1815, and died at her casino on the Lac di Como, 1841, aged 60. MRS. MOUNTAIN, a charming English singer, whose maiden name was Wilkinson,

made her first appearance at the Haymarket theatre 1782, and at Covent Garden 1786. Those who remember the more recent Miss Stephens, her sweetness and power, will understand us when we say that Mrs. Mountain was her prototype. Mrs. Mountain retired from the stage 1815, and died, aged 70, 1841. CHARLES DIBDIN (1744—1814), son of a silversmith of Southampton, quitted the foundation of Winchester school, from a propensity to study music as a profession, and became assistant organist in a country village, until his brother urged him to try his fortune in London. After teaching music and tuning pianos for some time, he appeared on the Haymarket boards as Ralph in the *Maid of the Mill*; but not liking an actor's life, and soon quarrelling with Garrick and all other stage-managers, he found his account in alone writing for the stage, and produced his admired *Deserter*, *Waterman*, *Quaker*, and a hundred other musical pieces. He also entertained the public by his own unassisted powers, in singing songs of his own composition at his 'Sans Souci' in Leicester-square—the most profitable of his speculations; and his sea-songs in particular, written as they were to suit the known loyalty of British sailors, drew the attention of the government. A pension was his reward, on the ground of the value of keeping the navy firm to monarchical principles at so peculiar a crisis as the French revolution. The careless life of Dibdin, however, kept him ever in difficulties; and he died in very indigent circumstances, aged 70. THOMAS DENMAN (1733—1815), born at Bakewell, Derbyshire, was son of an apothecary there, and in 1757 became a navy surgeon. He settled in London as a surgeon, 1764; and, after much struggle and difficulty, was chosen joint physician (having now his diploma) to the Middlesex hospital. Obstetrics had always been his forte, and his fame in that branch of practice rapidly increased; inso-much that, on the death of Dr. William Hunter, 1783, he was acknow-

ledged to be at the head of his profession, as regarded midwifery. Towards the close of his life, Dr. Denman relinquished his puerperal practice into the hands of his son-in-law, sir Richard Croft, and became a consulting physician. He died suddenly, aged 82, leaving a son, a lawyer, and subsequently created lord Denman. RICHARD CROFT, born at Tutbury, Staffordshire, became a surgeon there, and succeeded his kinsman, sir Herbert Croft, known for his literary taste, in the baronetcy. Having married Dr. Denman's daughter, he succeeded to that able physician's great obstetric practice, and was engaged to attend on the princess Charlotte of Wales in her accouchement, 1817. The unhappy decease of her royal highness by sir Richard's alleged administration of chicken broth to her instead of a glass of brandy, when she was fainting through exhaustion, together with the public newspaper clamour which ensued, had such an effect upon the baronet's spirits, that, in spite of the Prince Regent's generous assurance by letter that the royal family were satisfied he had acted with skill and caution on the trying occasion, he at length shot himself. JEAN DELUC (1727—1817), born at Geneva, was sent in 1768 by the legislators of the republic to Paris, on a special mission; but preferring geology to politics, he settled in England to write on that science. Here he remained until elected, 1798, professor of geology at Gottingen; but after the battle of Jena he returned to this country, and resided chiefly at Windsor, where his post of reader to Queen Charlotte gave him free access to the members of the royal house, all of whom seem to have regarded him greatly. In that happy retreat he died, aged 90. Deluc wrote much on his favourite science, wherein he laboured to reconcile every thing to the Mosaic account of the deluge; and he also rendered great service by his improvement of the barometer, as applicable to the measurement of heights. PETER DOLLOND (1780—

1820), son of John Dollond, an eminent London optician, who, turning his mind to the improvement of refracting telescopes, invented the achromatic telescope (so called on account of being free from the prismatic colours), about 1760. The jealousy of philosophers had long denied Mr. Dollond's claim as the inventor, when his son, Mr. Peter, ably vindicated his parent's right, 1789; and himself made considerable improvements in the telescope, and in Hadley's quadrant; and invented an instrument for correcting the errors arising in altitude from refraction. He died aged 90. JEAN BAPTISTE DELAMBRE (1749—1822), born at Amiens, studied in the college of his native town under the poet Delisle, who became his friend. Having, by the labour of tuition, scraped together enough money to enable him to enter the College of France at Paris, he made one of the great Lalande's class, and thus had his attention turned to astronomy. That science henceforth became his pursuit; and in 1781, when the planet Herschell was exciting the deep attention of philosophers, Delambre made himself celebrated by forming accurate tables of its motion. Similar tables for Jupiter and Saturn were next effected; and, during the horrors of the revolution, he was employed by the government, with Mechain, (when the project of fixing a standard of length had been acceded to by France and England,) to measure the arc from Dunkirk to Barcelona. This he had to complete alone, his coadjutor having died; and he got to the close with accuracy, amidst almost every variety of difficulty and personal danger that can be conceived. His labour lasted eight years; and its results are published in his valuable 'Base du Système Métrique Décimal.' Biot and Arago subsequently continued the arc from Barcelona to Formentera, but not with the same accuracy. Delambre was now appointed a member of the Bureau des Longitudes, and perpetual secretary of the French Institute. He was quietly pursuing his scientific

labours in his study at Paris, when the allies took possession of the city, 1814; and he professed to have felt on that occasion so perfectly calm, that he worked on, regardless of personal danger, for sixteen hours, in the very midst of the cannonade. In 1817 he was made a Chevalier of the order of St. Michael; and in 1822 he died, aged 73. He wrote largely on astronomy and other physical branches. HENRY EMLYN (1729—1815), an English architect, who was employed by king George III. in the alteration of the chapel of St. George at Windsor, and, in that work, endeavoured to innovate by making a double column rise from a single pedestal, contrary to those principles which regulate the acknowledged orders. His system, however, has never been adopted elsewhere. THE ABBÉ EDGEWORTH (1745—1807), born at Edgeworth's Town, in Ireland, went with his father, a clergyman, who had quitted the English for the Romish church, to reside at Toulouse. He took holy orders in the latter; and becoming confessor to the princess Elizabeth of France, was appointed to attend Louis XVI. to the scaffold, 1793. After that event, he escaped in disguise to England, and thence departed for the residence of Louis XVIII. at Mittau; where he died of a fever caught in the military hospital. RICHARD LOVELL EDGEWORTH, a kinsman of the Abbé, was born at Bath, and educated at Corpus Christi college, Oxford. He entered at the Temple; but having the family estates at Edgeworth's Town, Ireland, he passed his life chiefly there in the pursuit of mechanical science. At one period he visited France, and engaged in the direction of some works on the Rhone; but much of his time was devoted to literature, and to publishing, with his talented daughter, Maria, some works on education, practical and professional, all remarkable for the air of good sense and adaptation to the exigencies of common life which they exhibit. He died at Edgeworth's

Town, aged 73, 1817. ROBERT FULTON (1766—1815), born in Pennsylvania, came to England, and studied painting under his countryman West ; but, after some years, turned his mind to mechanics. He introduced panoramas into Paris, 1800 ; then contrived an apparatus for submarine explosion, intended to blow up an enemy's ships ; but as neither France nor England noticed his invention, he returned to America, and devoted the remainder of his life to steam navigation, of which he claimed the invention. His death was accelerated by his being denied the credit of that discovery, at the age of 49. UGO FOSCOLO (1776—1827), son of the Venetian governor of Zante, was born on board a frigate belonging to the oligarchy, and educated at Padua. On his tragedy of 'Tieste,' written at 20, being represented at Venice, he was made secretary to Battaglia, when sent envoy from Venice to Napoleon, to preserve the independence of the oligarchy. The embassy was unsuccessful ; and Foscolo, dissatisfied with the Austrian government, retired into Lombardy, then the Cisalpine republic, and wrote his 'Ultimo Litteré di Jacopo Ortis,' a romance of talent. He soon after entered the Italian army, and was shut up in Genoa with Massena, during the famous siege of that city, 1799. Heat length quitted the French army, with the rank of captain, and succeeded Monti as professor of literature in the university of Pavia ; but Napoleon, who suspected his fidelity, suppressed his office, and Foscolo removed to Milan. On the fall of the emperor, the professor was made a major by the Italian regency ; but connecting himself with a party inimical to the Austrian interests in Italy, he fled to England, 1815, and there passed the remainder of his life. He might have become independent now as an author ; but his violent temper, and the difficulties into which he brought himself by erecting and expensively furnishing a cottage in the Regent's Park, hurried him to the grave in his 52d year, 1827. He was a contributor to the Quarterly,

Edinburgh, Retrospective, and Westminster Reviews. ADAM FERGUSON (1724—1816), born at Logierait, Scotland, went as chaplain of the 42d foot to the continent ; but at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle returned to Edinburgh, and obtained the chair of moral philosophy. In 1773 he accompanied the earl of Chesterfield on his travels, and then went as secretary of the mission to America, 1778, to reconcile the colonists. His chief works are an essay on civil society, and a history of the Roman republic. CHARLES CADET DE GASSINCOURT, son of an apothecary of Paris, practised as an advocate during the sanguinary period of the Revolution, and was fortunate enough to escape the fate of those he defended. He eventually devoted much time to chemistry, of which he published a dictionary ; and he originated the board of health, and was made its perpetual secretary by the government. He died 1823. HENRY GRATTAN (1748—1820), born at Dublin, was son of the recorder of that city, and was called to the Irish bar, 1772. In 1775 he was elected a member of the Irish parliament, and by dint of agitation, produced a reluctant assent on the part of the British ministry, 1782, for a repeal of the statute of George I. That statute had enacted that the crown of Ireland was inseparably connected with that of Great Britain ; that Ireland was bound by British acts of parliament, when named therein ; that the Irish house of lords had no jurisdiction in matters of repeal ; and that the dernier resort, in all cases of law and equity, was in the lords of Great Britain. For his share in the acquirement of this great concession, the Irish parliament voted him 50,000*l.*, and a house and lands for himself and heirs for ever. Two or three sessions of great parliamentary controversy followed, which were marked by the political rivalry of Messrs. Grattan and Flood ; but the former still maintained his post of head of the Irish Whigs, and was returned member for Dublin, 1790. During the rebellion which followed, he se-

ceded from parliament; but when Mr. Pitt had projected a positive *Union* of the two parliaments, he obtained a seat in the Irish one to oppose the measure. He did not however refuse one in the united parliament, 1805, when he sat for Malton, and became the champion of catholic emancipation. He died aged 72. DON MIGUEL HIDALGO Y COSTILLA, a rebellious Spanish priest, who, in 1810, had influence enough to raise Mexico against Spain, the mother country. At the head of 80,000 men he entered Valladolid, after plundering Dolores, San Miguel, and other towns; and the Indians there joined his cause, in consequence of his repeal of the *tributos*, a tax they had ever paid to the Spanish government. He now marched upon Mexico, and Villegas, the governor, having but a handful of troops for its defence, resorted to spiritual arms against the insurgent. He induced the archbishop of Mexico and the Inquisition to excommunicate him; and instantly his partisans abandoned him, all but the few who had risked their fortunes in his cause. At Aculco his diminished force was attacked and routed, Nov. 7; Hidalgo fled, but mustered a fresh body of supporters at the bridge of Calderon, where he was wholly defeated, Jan. 7, 1811. From that time he was a solitary fugitive about the country, until seized by one of his own officers, March, 1811; and he was put to death in July of that year, after having been degraded from the priesthood. ELIZABETH INCHBALD (1756—1821), the daughter of a farmer named Simpson, was born at Stanningfield, Suffolk, and married Mr. Inchbald, a provincial actor of some celebrity. After his decease, 1779, she went herself upon the stage, appearing first at Covent Garden as Bellario, in the play of *Philaster*, 1780; and she remained a favourite performer until her retirement, 1789. She now commenced authoress; and besides light dramatic pieces, wrote a novel of great pathos, intitled ‘*A Simple Story*.’ It adds highly to the merit of

this ingenious woman, that she passed a life attended with many difficulties and temptations (being herself beautiful in person), with unsullied reputation. SOPHIA LEE (1750—1824), born in London, was the daughter of an actor, and became known, 1780, by her diverting comedy, ‘*The Chapter of Accidents*,’ with the profits of which she was enabled to open a school at Bath. This establishment she conducted, aided by her sisters, with great reputation for several years; and from time to time she gave to the public her ‘*Canterbury Tales*,’ and other works of fiction, and acquired a handsome competency. Miss Lee died at Clifton, aged 74. NICOLAI KARAMZIN (1765—1826), a celebrated Russian historian, served for some time in the imperial guard, but eventually devoted himself to literature, and, by command of the Emperor Alexander, wrote ‘*The History of the Russian Empire*.’ It is an authentic and valuable work, in 11 vols. octavo, and has been translated into French. The emperor gave Karamzin a pension of 50,000 rubles for his labour. LOUIS LANGLES (1703—1824), born at Péronne, was intended for the civil service in India, in consequence of his taste for Oriental languages; but the revolution changing his views, he remained at home. His publication of a *Nantchou* dictionary brought him fame; and his quiet pursuits enabled him to live fearlessly in Paris during the worst horrors of 1793. On the formation of the Institute he became a member; and the remainder of his life was passed in learned ease, if we except his constant, though vain attempts, to re-establish the ‘*Journal des Savans*,’ and other works. His ‘*Dictionnaire Nantchou-Français*,’ is a very curious and valuable performance. JEAN MAURY (1746—1817), born at Valeras, in France, became preacher to Louis XVI.; and was elected a deputy from the clerical order to the States-general, in the revolution. His efforts in favour of monarchy, at that assembly, occa-

sioning him to be regarded with suspicion, he was arrested ; but he advocated the same cause in the National Assembly, and on its dissolution, repaired to Rome, when the pope sent him as apostolic nuncio to assist at the coronation of the Emperor of Germany. He was subsequently made archbishop of Nicæa, in 1794 a cardinal, and, by Napoleon, on his declaring himself emperor, archbishop of Paris. On the fall of the Buonaparte family he returned to Rome, and died there, 1817, aged 71. CHARLES MATURIN, curate of St. Peter's, Dublin, was an eccentric divine, who, going out of the sphere of his sacred duties, wrote romances and plays in preference to sermons. ' Bertram,' a tragedy, in which Kean took the leading character, brought him first into notice ; and buoyed up by the success of the piece, he ran into debt, and continued in difficulties till his early death, 1825. THE TWO MILNERS. These were sons of a Yorkshire weaver, and brought up in their father's trade. Their rise was extraordinary. *Joseph*, the elder, being of a studious turn, was eventually sent to the free school at Leeds (his native place) ; and *Isaac*, the younger (the more talented of the two), left the loom to be usher in a school. Both graduated at Cambridge—Isaac at Queen's college, where, as a tutor, he had Mr. Pitt and Mr. Wilberforce as pupils ; with whom he travelled abroad. In 1788 he (Isaac) became master of his college, soon after dean of Carlisle, vice-chancellor of Cambridge, 1792, and Lucasian professor of mathematics, 1798. He wrote against Dr. Marsh, in favour of the Bible Society (being of the evangelical class), and died 1820. *Joseph*, who was of Catherine-hall and also of low-church principles, obtained two livings in Yorkshire, and was long master of the grammar-school at Hull. He published a ' History of the Church of Christ,' and died, aged 52, 1797. The advancement of both brothers is attributable to Mr. Wilberforce. JOHN MILNER (1752—

1826), born in London of a catholic family, was educated at the college of Douay. Having taken holy orders, and proceeded D.D., he in 1779 was appointed pastor of the catholic chapel at Winchester, whither he had gone to administer spiritual aid to the French prisoners confined there, after two clergymen, who had attended them, had been cut off by a prevalent malignant fever. His attachment to the study of ancient church architecture, led him to an attentive observation of the remains of catholic antiquity with which Winchester abounds ; and his many consequent contributions to the ' *Archæologia*,' together with his work on ' *The Modern Style of altering Cathedrals*,' procured him admission into the Royal Society of Antiquaries, 1790. Some observations he made on bishop Hoadly's character of fending a prebendary of Winchester, Dr. Sturges, he was warmly attacked in the latter's tract, ' *Reflections on Popery* ;' and it is impossible to read Dr. Milner's reply, ' *Letters to a Prebendary*,' without high admiration of the learning, ability, and acuteness of the author, who, whatever may be thought of the general questions at issue, had manifestly the advantage of his antagonist. The doctor was subsequently engaged in repelling assaults against the Romish faith, at the same time that he had enough to do in correcting the errors of those among its friends, whose eagerness to obtain the rights for which they contended, manifestly endangered its safety and independence. On the death of bishop Stapleton, Dr. Milner was appointed to succeed him as vicar apostolic in the midland district, with the title of bishop of Castabala. He for some time refused the dignity ; but being at length prevailed on to accept it, he was consecrated, 1803, and took up his residence at Wolverhampton for the remainder of his life. In 1807 he visited Ireland, that he might be enabled, by personal observation and intercourse, to form an opinion con-

cerning the charges brought against the Roman catholics of that country ; and the result was his very interesting, and, it would seem, impartial, ' Inquiry into certain vulgar Opinions concerning the Catholic Inhabitants and the Antiquities of Ireland.' On the fall of Napoleon, 1814, he visited Rome, to confer with pope Pius VII. on the interests of religion ; and after a year's stay in the capitol, returned to Wolverhampton, and commenced a series of tracts in defence of his church's principles, among which ' The End of Religious Controversy' is the best known. He died, 1826. CONRAD MALTEBRUN (1775—1826), a native of Jutland, studied at the university of Copenhagen, but was expatriated for his political writings, 1796. He eventually settled at Paris, where he acquired considerable reputation as a geographer. His 'Précis de la Géographie Universelle,' a valuable work, has been translated into English. SEBASTIANO NALDI, a buffo-singer on the Italian stage, London, who distinguished himself above all who had gone before him in that particular branch. The principal character in 'Il Fanatico per la Musica' was his best personation. He met his death at Paris, 1819, through the explosion of a steam-cooking apparatus. JOHN PINKERTON (1758—1826), born at Edinburgh, settled as an author in London ; and from his pen came a singularly miscellaneous series of works, on medals, geography, &c., besides his reprints of scarce books, and collections of travels, lives, poems, maps, &c. The last twenty years of his life this eccentric author passed at Paris, and there died. THE PLAYFAIRS.—These were two sons of a kirk minister.—John (1749—1819), born at Bervie, near Dundee, received ordination, and succeeded to his father's benefice, 1772 ; but he resigned it, to become professor of mathematics in the university of Edinburgh. In 1816 he visited the Alps, for the purpose of making geological observations on their structure ; and he wrote many philo-

sophical works. William (1759—1823) turned his mind to mechanics, and was some time with Mr. James Watt, as a draughtsman in the works at Soho. Going to the continent, he discovered the plan of the alphabetical telegraph, and introduced it into England ; and latterly he became a statistical writer, and supporter of Mr. Pitt's government. HUMPHRY REPTON (1752—1818), born at Bury St. Edmunds, accompanied Mr. Wyndham to Ireland, and obtained a lucrative post at the castle in Dublin, 1783. On his return to England, he professionally applied himself to the improvement of gardens and pleasure-grounds, and became very extensively employed by the nobility and gentry in that pursuit. THOMAS STAMFORD RAFFLES (1781—1826), son of a captain in the West India trade, was appointed a clerk in the India House. The interest of Mr. Ramsay, secretary to that establishment, procured him in 1805, as he wished to go abroad, the assistant-secretaryship of the newly-formed government of Prince of Wales's island (then called Pulo Penang) ; and there, under governor Dundas, he studied the Malay tongue with such success, as soon to be made government interpreter of the language. In 1810 he was appointed agent of the governor-general of India with the Malay states ; and in 1811, on the capture of Batavia and Java from the Dutch, he was nominated lieutenant-governor of Java. During his rule, from 1811 to 1816, he brought the hostilities, which before his time had been commenced with the native chiefs, to a successful termination, completed a statistical map and survey of the island, and greatly improved its mode of administering justice. In 1816, having lost his wife, he returned to England, and published his 'History of Java ;' and in 1817 he was knighted, and went out again as resident of Bencoolen in Sumatra. In that capacity, and as governor of Fort Marlborough, he effected the abolition of slavery

throughout the settlement, and took possession of the island of Singapore, both to protect its inhabitants and to benefit the English trade. Ill health compelled him to embark once more for home, 1824; but on the evening of the day he set sail, a fire broke out in his ship, and both vessel and cargo, including 30,000*l.* of his property, were destroyed. The crew and passengers saved their lives with difficulty, and landed again fifteen miles from Bencoolen; and two months elapsed before sir Thomas could again commence his voyage. He died two years after his arrival in England, July, 1826, aged 45. ABRAHAM REES (1743—1825), son of a Welch presbyterian minister, was born near Montgomery, and sent for education to the Hoxton dissenters' academy, founded by Mr. Coward; where his progress in mathematics was so rapid, that, at nineteen, he was tutor of that branch in the institution, and so continued twenty-two years. In 1768, having obtained the usual licence to act as a preacher, he became pastor of a presbyterian congregation in the borough; and in 1783 took the charge of a congregation of some other denomination in the Old Jewry. Dr. Rees was an able controversialist; but he is now best known by his new and enlarged edition of 'Chambers's Cyclopædia,' which he completed very admirably in forty-five volumes. He died aged 82. JOHANN SALOMON (1745—1815), born at Bonn, acquired great reputation as a musical composer in Germany and France, and came to England, 1781. Here he was in extraordinary repute as a violinist; and to him we are indebted for the introduction into this country of Haydn, whose symphonies, written for Salomon's concerts, are regarded as the standard of perfection for that species of composition. He died in London, aged 70. CHARLES, EARL STANHOPE (1753—1816), son of the second earl, was educated at Eton and Geneva, and represented Wycombe in parliament from 1774 to 1786, when his father's death called

him to the house of peers. He was one of the few English noblemen who hailed with joy the French revolution; and he even avowed republican sentiments, and went so far as to lay by the external ornaments of the peerage, in admiration of the unhappy M. Egalité. As a man of science, he is known as the inventor of a vessel to sail against wind and tide, a new printing press, &c.; and one of his daughters, not less eccentric than himself, was lady Hester Stanhope. He died aged 63. ROGER AMBROSE SICARD (1742—1822), born at Fousseret, near Toulouse, became an abbé, and succeeded the abbé l'Epée as director of the Parisian institution for the education of the deaf and dumb, 1789. During the reign of terror he was seized while in the midst of his pupils, and dragged to prison; but he escaped the guillotine, though, until the overthrow of the directory, he was prevented returning to his post. Napoleon never noticed him, though he never molested him; and the careless habits of expenditure of the abbé would have brought him to poverty, but for the restoration of Louis XVIII., who made him a knight of the legion of honour, and gave him one or two lucrative appointments. He wrote a course of instruction for the deaf and dumb, and other similar works, and died aged 80. ANNE, BARONESS DE STAEL (1766—1817) was daughter of the celebrated French financier, Necker, and married the baron de Staël Holstein, 1786. She entered warmly into politics, embracing the popular cause; but when she had been driven with her father into exile, and returned to France, 1792, with the hope of saving some of the victims of revolutionary fury, she narrowly escaped the guillotine. Under the directory she was allowed to return to Paris; and, through her influence over Barras, her friend Talleyrand was raised to the post of minister for foreign affairs. She never liked Buonaparte, and even wrote

against him ; and at length he once more banished her, 1803. In 1807, the sentiments contained in her 'Corinne,' a novel, revived Napoleon's anger, and she was ordered to leave Rouen for Coppet in Switzerland, her father's estate ; where, the baron de Staël being now dead, she married M. de Rocca, a young French officer. She was in London at the fall of Paris, 1814 ; and Louis XVIII., after his restoration, ordered two millions of francs, which had been deposited in the treasury by her father, to be refunded to her. Her various works on 'Germany,' 'The French Revolution,' &c., have been for the most part translated into English. She died aged 51. JOHN WALKER (1732—1807), born at Friern Barnet, Herts, settled in London as a lecturer on elocution, and became the friend of Johnson and Burke. He is well known for his 'Pronouncing Dictionary,' and a work on 'Elocution,' and was a very amiable man. ARTHUR YOUNG (1741—1820), son of a worthy divine, was born in Norfolk, and devoted his attention, first to the practice, and then to the theory, of agriculture, the former having ruined his small finances. His 'Farmer's Calendar,' begun 1770, and 'Annals of Agriculture,' were patronised, and even contributed to, by king George III. ; and when the board of agriculture was instituted, Mr. Young was made its secretary. JOHN WOLCOT (1738—1819), born at Dodbrooke, Devon, accompanied sir William Trelawney, who went governor to Jamaica, as a physician ; but finding no patients, he obtained holy orders, and had an exclusively black congregation under his care. On the death of sir William, he returned to England ; and succeeding soon after to the property of his uncle, he again practised physic at Truro, in Cornwall, and then at Helstone. At the latter place he found out the talents of the celebrated painter, Opie, then a young miner, with whom he came to London, 1780 ; and it was now that he became generally

known by a series of poetical satires, published under the assumed name of Peter Pindar. His attacks were at first levelled at the royal academicians ; but at length the harmless peculiarities of his sovereign, and of his amiable consort, formed the unjustifiable field of his wit, which was much more conspicuous than his veracity. The booksellers came in for their share ; and he did not spare them when, having been enabled to cheat those who would have cheated him, he gained a comfortable annuity from them for his declining years. The story is thus related. Some of the houses of Paternoster-row had united to purchase the copyright of his works, for which he demanded, in their estimation, too large a sum. On this, being then a martyr to gout, Wolcot induced some medical friend to attest that his life was not worth a year's purchase, so that a handsome annuity might be granted him fearlessly in lieu of the purchase-money. The booksellers assented, the documents were signed, and off went Wolcot to his native village, to lay in a stock of health, which lasted him seventeen years ! Dr. Wolcot was not a very estimable character ; and his epicurean turn, combined with a great portion of vulgar coarseness, presents altogether a disgusting picture. His satires, poignant and talented as they were, are sinking fast into oblivion : not so our recollection of the dissolvent feelings, which gave them birth. Their author lived to his 82d year. RICHARD PONSON, the son of a parish clerk, was sent to Eton and Trinity college, Cambridge, at the cost of some gentlemen who had admired his early display of talent. His extraordinary proficiency in Greek occasioned his unanimous election to that professorship at Cambridge ; and towards the close of his life he was secretary to the London Institution, with a salary of 200*l*. His habits, however, were careless and convivial, and he passed to his grave, 1808, without having secured many friends.

A quick perception of things, a memory extraordinarily retentive, and a judgment which pronounced accurately upon the merits of every thing it weighed, render the fame of Porson undying ; and his admirable notes on the *Medea*, *Hecuba*, *Phœnissa*, and *Orestes* of Euripides, place him at once in the highest rank of critical scholars. On examining his skull after death, it was found one of the thickest that had ever been scrutinized by the phrenologist. CHRISTOPHER WIELAND, son of a protestant divine in Suabia, gave up the law for literature, and was patronized by the duchess of Saxe Weimar. After his retirement to his small estate near Zurich, Buonaparte visited him, and sent him the legion of honour. He wrote many romances and novels ; but his favourite poems in Germany are ‘*Musarion*’ and ‘*Oberon*,’ the latter of which has been elegantly translated by Sotheby into English. He died 1813, aged 80. VITTORIO ALFIERI, born of a noble family in Piedmont, devoted himself, after much travelling, and a somewhat dissipated youth, to the Muses. In 1788 he married the countess of Albany, widow of the young pretender. His tragedies, on subjects of classical history, are highly esteemed by his countrymen ; but have far too much grandiloquence to please the English taste. Alfieri died 1803, aged 54. FREDERICK KLOPSTOCK, a German poet, who, with a view to raise the character of German poetry, published his ‘*Messiah*,’ in twenty-four cantos, containing 20,000 hexameters, unfit as the Teutonic languages are considered for the rules of ancient poetry. Though the work offended many, by the singular mixture of sacred history with poetical invention, it obtained the author no small share of fame. He died 1803, aged 78. SAMUEL IRELAND, a salesman of scarce books and prints, who attempted to deceive the world by the publication of ‘*Miscellaneous Papers of William Shakspeare*.’ Amongst them were two tragedies, entitled respectively *Henry II.* and *Vortigern*,

the latter of which was performed at Drury Lane, 1796 ; but the discernment of a British audience quickly detected the cheat. By the subsequent confessions of his son, William Ireland, it seems that the latter imposed the papers upon his parent, whom he wholly exculpates from participation in the deception. Samuel Ireland died 1800. JOHN COAKLEY LETTSON, a quaker and physician, born in the West Indies, who, upon succeeding to his father’s property, manumitted the slaves, and then acquired a very lucrative practice in London. His ‘*Hints on Beneficence and Temperance*’ was long a very popular book ; and he gave to the world an interesting life of his early friend, also a quaker, Dr. Fothergill. He died in London, aged 71, 1815. JOHN WATT, the civil engineer, was born at Greenock, in Scotland, 1736 ; and as the partner of Mr. Boulton, of Birmingham, he effected those improvements in the steam-engine, which have immortalized his name. With Priestley and others, he made experiments in chemistry ; and the polygraph, or copy-machine, is one of the many useful mechanical inventions of this talented man. He died 1819, aged 83. BENJAMIN WEST was born in America of a quaker family ; and after visiting Italy, settled in England, 1763. Patronized by the king, he soon rose to eminence ; and his *Departure of Regulus from Rome*, *Death of Wolfe*, *Christ healing the Sick*, *Christ Rejected*, and *Death on the Pale Horse*, are alike remarkable for their spirited representation of character, multiplicity of figures, and glowing colours. At Windsor are many of his pictures from scenes of our early history, expressly painted for George III. He died 1820, aged 82. ANGELICA KAUFMANN, daughter of a Swiss painter, came to England after studying in the Italian school, and rose to eminence as an historical artist. The best of her pieces were in the collection of the late Mr. Humphrey Bowles, of Wanstead. She died 1807, at Rome, aged 67. JOHN OPIE,

the son of a Cornish carpenter, was first brought into notice as a painter by Dr. Wolcot the poet. His pencil was very creditably employed on the pictures exhibited in the Boydell and Macklin galleries. He died 1807, aged 46. HENRY FUSELI, of Zurich, declined holy orders, to devote himself to the study of Michael Angelo. He was the intimate friend of Lavater, and on coming to England was patronized by Reynolds. His forty-seven pictures from Milton, and ten from Shakspeare, are all remarkable for an exaggeration of character, suitable alone to subjects of the terrific class. Lavater had given him a monition which he assured him, if he attended to, would make his fortune : it was, 'Do the third part of what you can do.' He died 1817, aged 78, at the countess of Guilford's at Putney Hill. GEORGE ROMNEY, the son of a carpenter in Lancashire, came to London, after a very little instruction in painting, and rapidly rose to eminence as a delineator of portraits. In a single year he made nearly 4000/. He added some historical productions to the Boydell gallery of Shakspeare ; and in the outline of his figures, and the disposition of the drapery, he was singularly classical. He was accurate in colouring, but defective in blending his shades. He died 1802, aged 68. GEORGE MORLAND, son of a London artist, having fallen into dissipated habits, forsook the study of the woods and fields for the society of the alehouse ; and employed his pencil upon the subjects that most interested him there. He has given, with the true stamp of genius, living pictures of drovers drinking, and of stage-coachmen starting and coming in ; and his farm-yard and stable-pieces, wherein he introduces cattle of all descriptions, dogs, and poultry, have been surpassed by no other English artist. He died a victim to intemperance, 1804, aged 40. JOHN SINGLETON COPLEY, born of British parents in America, came to England, 1767, on the strength of his fame, which was derived from a paint-

ing of a boy and squirrel. Though coldly received by West and others, he made his way to celebrity as an historical artist ; and his death's of Chatham and Major Pierson are considered to be his best works. His son (having the same name), born 1772, is now lord high chancellor of England for the third time, and a peer of the realm, with the title of baron Lyndhurst. Mr. Copley died, aged 78, 1815. He is said to have been ill able to afford his son the education (at Trinity college, Cambridge, where he became a fellow), which he ventured to give him ; but he thus proved the truth of the ancient maxim, 'that the money expended on a son's liberal education is never lost.' JOHN FLAXMAN, born at York, followed his father's art as a sculptor, and, during a residence at Rome, executed some fine pieces from Ovid, Homer, and Dante. On his return to England, he was henceforward engaged on works of the highest national importance ; and his monuments of the countess Spencer, and the poet Collins, have been especially admired. He died, aged 71, 1826. FRANCIS BARTOLOZZI, of Florence, came to England with Mr. Dalton (librarian to George III.), who gave him 300/. a year to work on his own account as an engraver. He soon rose to eminence as the improver of the recently invented red dotted or chalk manner of engraving, which, for a time, put aside the more legitimate style of the line. He accepted an offer from the regent of Portugal to settle at Lisbon, when an aged man ; and died there, 1815, aged 87. ANTONIO CANOVA, the most celebrated sculptor of modern times, was a Venetian of humble origin, and was brought into notice by signor Falieri, who had seen the figure of a lion, formed by the youthful aspirant in butter. Under Toretti of Vienna, and other eminent masters, he gradually rose to fame and fortune, and was treated with the highest respect by Napoleon, George IV., and the Pope ; the latter of whom created

him marquis of Ischia, inscribed his name in the book of the capitol, and gave him a handsome pension. The chief amongst the very numerous works of Canova, are *Venus* and *Adonis*, his chef-d'œuvre; a miniature statue of *Mary Magdalen*; *Cupid and Psyche*, at Malmaison; *Hercules and Lycas*, at Rome; *Psyche*, executed at a very early age, and by many thought to be his best work; and the statue of *Napoleon* holding the sceptre, the property of the duke of Wellington by the fortune of war. This great artist died, 1822, aged 64. GIOVANNI PAISIELLO, born at Tarento, in Italy, gradually rose to eminence both as a singer and composer; and no name was more celebrated than his, up to the period of the French revolution, for the graces and freshness of melody, or for simplicity, correctness, and elegance. His operas are more than seventy in number. Napoleon patronized him; and nine years of his life he passed at the court of Catherine II. of Russia. He died, aged 75, 1816. ELIZABETH BILLINGTON, the most celebrated English female singer of her day, was daughter of Mr. Weischell, a German musician, and became the wife of an English music-master. No opera or concert of reputation was considered complete without her. She travelled to Italy, and had equal honours paid her at Milan and Rome; and returning to England in 1801, she appeared alternately at the two great theatres, astonishing the whole musical world by her performance of *Mandane*. She died 1817. DORA JORDAN, an actress, famous for her delineation of a peculiarly difficult species of character, such as *Peggy*, in 'The Country Girl,' *Phœbe*, in 'As You Like It,' &c. She was the daughter of captain Bland, of a respectable Irish family, whose poor means induced her to look to the stage for support; and, though unmarried, she assumed the style of 'Mrs. Jordan,' on commencing an engagement at the York theatre. She soon after appeared on the Lon-

don boards. Her connexion with an illustrious personage led to a temporary retirement from the stage, and upon the termination of her theatrical career, she went to reside in France; where she died in obscurity, but much respected for her amiable and benevolent character, 1816. ABRAHAM WERNER, a German, whose father was overseer of the iron-mines of Upper Lusatia, has established his reputation by forming a system of mineralogy, classifying the various products of the earth, and pointing out their characteristic analogies. He died, 1817, aged 67. CHARLES HUTTON, son of a viewer of mines at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, became a mathematical master of the grammar-school there, and had lord chancellor Eldon, and his brother, lord Stowell, as pupils. But his fame was chiefly established by a tract on the principles of bridges; and on standing for the mathematical professorship at Woolwich, he bore away the prize from ten competitors, and during thirty-four years held his useful office. His works are, 'On the force of exploded gunpowder,' 'On the velocity of balls exploded from artillery,' mathematical tables, and a course of mathematics, which has become a text-book in our schools. Dr. Hutton died, 1823, aged 85. BENJAMIN THOMPSON, COUNT RUMFORD, an American, who, for his services in the war with the colonies, was knighted by George III.; and he was made a count by the duke of Bavaria, for suppressing mendicity in his state. The count was the inventor of a stove to economise fuel, and prevent a too rapid escape of the heat. He married the widow of Lavoisier, and died in France, 1814. BERNARD DE LACEPEDE, son and heir of the count de Lacépède, lieutenant-general of the *Sénéchaussée*, was born at Agen, in France, and devoted himself to the study of natural history. His family compelled him, however, to adopt a profession, and he chose the army; but he quitted it, on Buffon's offer to him of the post of

curator in the Cabinet du Roi, 1785. Throughout the revolution, and during the period of Napoleon's rule, he held office of some kind or other, and was from 1803 to the Restoration, 1814, grand chancellor of the legion of honour. His chief works are histories of quadrupeds, fishes, the cetaceous kind, and serpents; the best of which Cuvier considered 'Histoire Naturelle des Cétacés.' He died, aged 69, 1825. To the baron are attributed some anecdotes of the private life and charities of Henrietta Maria, queen of our Charles I., after her consort's death. That high-minded princess, after living some years at the convent of St. Marie de la Visitation, in Chaillot, retired to the small village of Colombes, near Argenteuil, and there died, beloved for her benevolent conduct, September, 10th, 1669, aged 60. In the same work is some praise of our William the Conqueror, for his consistency of character. He is represented, for which there is authority in our own William of Malmesbury, to have been the great restorer of religion in 'our then irreligious kingdom.' He set the example of daily attending mass; and though, in church matters, he ruled with a despotism subversive of the pope's authority in England, his liberality to monasteries and church-foundations was most magnificent; and in no instance was he guilty of simoniacal dealings. In early life he had violated the canons by his marriage with Matilda, a princess within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity; and for this he eventually confessed his sorrow. All this somewhat helps to qualify the recorded roughness of the great Norman's manners. **MARY OF BUTTERMERE.** There is a very romantic story connected with this name. On a beautiful green isthmus, which divides two of the lakes of Cumberland, (that of Buttermere, noted for its char, and Crummock-water,) stands the little village of Buttermere; consisting of a few scattered cottages, a minute chapel, and

the perpetual-curate's abode. One day in the lake-fishing season, 1802, there drove up to the Royal Oak, the chief inn at Keswick, a handsome travelling chariot; out of which descended a traveller of dashing exterior, who announced himself as the honourable Augustus Hope, brother of lord Hopetown, whose good property was well known in the neighbourhood. The gentleman had come to fish; and the circumstance of his *franking letters*, which passed at the post-office, in the name of Hope, occasioned all doors to be opened at his approach, and all boats, boatmen, nets, and the most unlimited sporting privileges, to be placed at his disposal. Nine miles from Keswick, by the nearest bridle-road, and fifteen by that which Mr. Hope's chariot could pass, lay the aforesaid village of Buttermere; and at the cottage of an independent proprietor, named Robinson, who allowed travellers to use his abode during the char-fishing season, though he was not an inn-keeper, arrived the equipage of the dashing 'honourable' man—in an evil hour. He was, of course, abundantly welcomed; and the daughter of the house, a fine young woman of eighteen, acted as waiter. In a situation so solitary, the stranger had unlimited facilities for cultivating the good opinion of the latter; and the accounts from Keswick asserting him to be all he represented himself, she was induced to give her hand to him, in a few weeks after his appearance at Buttermere, in the neighbouring church of Laughton, October 2, 1802. Three weeks rapidly passed away, happily enough to the bride; when, early one morning, arrived at Buttermere (where the honourable gentleman still sojourned), a messenger, with a letter addressed to the honourable colonel Hope, from the earl of Hopetown. The said messenger, on having the husband of Mary shown to him as Mr. Hope, exclaimed, 'You are not colonel Hope.' 'That letter,' said the stranger, 'is for my brother.' The bearer of the epistle,

however, knew all the Hope family, being the earl's own servant, who had been sent to ascertain who 'the honourable Augustus Hope' could be, as the party owning that title was abroad. The mystery was soon cleared up. The stranger proved to be a notorious swindler, named James Hadfield; who had deserted a wife and family, been a bankrupt in London, and been incarcerated seven years at Scarborough for crimes.

He instantly fled from Buttermere, and was not caught until many weeks after, at Brecknock, in Wales: he was tried at the next spring assizes at Carlisle, on the charge of forgery, found guilty, and there executed. Severe was, of course, the distress of poor Mary, as the scoundrel had treated her with extreme attention; but, after a time, she married a substantial farmer, and, we have heard, is still living.

CLOSE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

Thus have we brought our sketch of the awful and sanguinary movement of the French people to a close. Passing over the millions subsequently sacrificed by and to the ambition of a single person (who having, by means of the terrible explosion in question, found his way to a throne, which, overturned as it had been by blood, by blood alone, it would seem, could be for a time maintained), we must be allowed to pause, ere we commence another portion of our history, in order to contemplate the extent and character of the destruction of human life chargeable upon the Revolution itself.

From the first tocsin of the Reign of Terror, 1793, to the last public execution in Paris in 1795, had fallen by violence a million and a half of French men, women, and children; and it will be well for the lovers of change and innovation, which are but too often, in state matters, the precursors of revolution, to reflect, that by far the larger proportion of the victims were in the middle and lower ranks of life. The priests, nobles, and gentry, guillotined, or otherwise executed, at Paris, Nantes, Lyon, and in La Vendée, were in all about 8000; while of labourers, artisans, and their wives and children, there were no fewer than a million and a quarter! The grand contrivers of insurrections have been usually of the middle and lower ranks, who conceive it a matter of certainty that they shall slip into the seats of their betters, and enjoy their wealth; but

that wealth, in the main, as in the French revolution, finds its way out of the country at the first dawn of the outbreak, and the owners of it soon follow to the same foreign place of security,—leaving the classes among whom the revolution emanated, to slay one another, in the contest for what the rich have left. And it needs but to read the list of the charges brought against such as were guillotined in France, when the Jacobins were once triumphant, to see how a radical party can outdo the higher grades in tyranny towards their equals: a few instances will suffice. Henrietta Marboeuf, aged 55, convicted of *hoping* for the arrival of the Austrians and Prussians, and of keeping provisions for them, and executed accordingly; François Bertrand, aged 37, publican, or furnishing the defenders of the country with *sour wine*, injurious to the health of the citizens; Marie Plaisant, semstress, for exclaiming 'a fig for the nation'; Jean Baptiste Henri, aged 18, tailor, for having sawn a tree of liberty; Jean Julian, waggoner, for having, while at hard labour to which he had been sentenced twelve years, cried out 'Vive le roi!'. Jacques Duclesne, broker, Jean Savage, gunsmith, Frances Lozelier and Melanie Canosse, milliners, with Marie Magdalen Virolle, female hairdresser, for composing, writing, and speaking in favour of the king, nobles, and clergy; and, lastly for us to name, 'Genevieve Gouvan, aged 77, semstress, for having been the author

and accomplice of various conspiracies tending to create civil war and paralyze the public.' An aged woman of 77, powerful enough to create civil war, and paralyze the public! Let

those prone to pull down and abolish ancient institutions, think of these things, and be timely wise,—if it be only to save themselves from a condition worse than their present estate.

PERIOD THE SIXTEENTH.

FROM THE CLOSE OF THE WARS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION BY THE VICTORY OF WATERLOO, TO THE PRESENT DAY.

1815 TO 1843—28 YEARS.

REIGN CLXXIII.—PART III.

GEORGE III., KING OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

1760 TO 1820—60 YEARS.

PART III.—1815 TO 1820—5 YEARS;

BEING THE LATTER PORTION OF THE REGENCY OF GEORGE, PRINCE OF WALES.

POLITICAL HISTORY *continued*.—Peace had been restored to the civilized world, and very happily so, we stated, when the cause of Napoleon Buonaparte and of French supremacy had been for ever crushed at Waterloo. But a general cessation from war, from a condition which had kept all the powerful, and many of the inferior, nations of Europe, either armed or in actual collision, for a quarter of a century, must always be expected to induce some minor evils. Political bodies, in this respect, are akin to human bodies; and as when some great drain, either upon the physical or the mental constitution of the latter, for years accustomed to be in activity, is suddenly stayed, inflammation or other dangers must be looked for and guarded against, so in the body politic, when the general occupation has been 'arms,' the sudden restraints put upon the common soldier (restraints, however negative, yet far greater than army discipline) will cause restlessness and discontent to spring. In England, the difficulty was also how so large a body of men, accustomed from their youth to military practices alone, should find employ, where labourers of every sort were in profusion; so that even when the sword had been, after much hesitation, converted into the ploughshare, and the spear into the pruning-hook, there was neither ploughing nor pruning for them. The scantiness of occupation was aggravated by the fact of the sudden closing of the channels of foreign trade, England having, during the latter part of the long war, engrossed the chief commerce of Europe; and no mart being found for the goods of the manufacturers, which the competition existing among all classes had augmented to a supply beyond the demands of a whole world, distress began to assail masters as well as men. The most alarming riots ensued. Designing men were not wanting at the crisis, to take the

lead in these rebellious doings ; and under the plea of effecting a reform in the representation of the people in parliament, which was to give bread to the starving, and clothes to the naked, vast meetings of the populace were called together by Mr. Henry Hunt and others, only to be dispersed by military interference. As deaths usually occur during such collisions, common cause was made by the mob and their directors against the soldiery ; and to the credit of the latter be it said, and to the admirable discipline existing in the British armies, and in the militia and sub-military institutions, that their patience was never to be overcome, their firmness never to be shaken, and their loyalty never, by the slightest act of disobedience, to be called in question. The suspension of the habeas corpus act, and the imprisonment of several of the heads of the popular meetings, had the effect, after a time, of restoring tranquillity ; while an expedition under lord Exmouth against the Algerines, 1816, to punish the audacity of those pirates, and which terminated successfully, helped to draw the public attention from the painful subject of national distress.

There were likewise two incidents of a domestic nature at this juncture, 1813, which a great deal contributed to the same beneficial end ; for so essentially loyal is the English people in the main, that even two royal marriages were sufficient to interest public opinion, and engage it for a while in a pleasurable manner. The heiress of the throne, Charlotte Augusta, princess of Wales, daughter of the Prince Regent, had for some time entertained a romantic attachment for prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, who had been introduced to her royal highness when she resided at Warwick house, at a time when she was a little estranged from her royal father by the unhappy differences connected with her royal mother's alleged misconduct ; and the Prince Regent's consent to her nuptials being at length obtained, the marriage was celebrated in the month of May. In the succeeding July, William Frederick, duke of Gloucester, to the satisfaction of all parties in the nation, espoused his cousin, the princess Mary, one of the sisters of the Prince Regent. The duke himself was esteemed for his general virtues, and his unvarying urbanity ; while the princess was distinguished for her charities, her amiable and condescending manners, and her consideration and extreme kindness to all about her person. ' George IV.' (then Prince Regent), writes Sir Astley Cooper in his note-book, whence his nephew has recently drawn his biography for the public eye, ' thought lady Melbourne the most delightful person he had ever seen, and used to describe her person, her appearance, her manners, her temper, her gracefulness, as divine. He said, however, that his sister Mary was the *most of an angel* he had ever known, and asked me if I had ever seen her? I said that I had had the honour of attending her (as a physician), and had seen her at lord Verulam's. Well, continued he, is she not delightful? The praises of a brother in this way, we know, in every grade of life, to be devoid of flattery, and sincere.

The former of these alliances was, to the great grief of the country, broken by the hand of death in a year. Her royal highness the princess Charlotte, just after giving birth to a still-born son, expired, at the age of 21, Nov. 6, 1817. Never was sorrow more universal throughout a nation, or more distinctly manifested, than on that occasion. The day on which the bodies of mother and child were consigned to the tomb, was voluntarily observed as a day of fasting and humiliation by all ranks ; and a stranger witnessing the affliction on every countenance, and the black crape, if not the complete mourning garb of every person, whatever their condition, in the streets of the metropolis especially, might have supposed some fearful devastation, either of war, of pestilence, or of the earthquake, had robbed each family of a beloved member. This loss of the heiress-apparent occasioned several of

the royal dukes, uncles of the deceased princess, to form matrimonial alliances forthwith; and the dukes of Kent, Clarence, and Cambridge, and the princess Elizabeth, were united to branches of different princely German houses.

The decease of the exemplary queen Charlotte, at the age of seventy-five, occurred 1818.

The attempts of the continental sovereigns to restore their lost influence in their respective states, now that the enemy of kings was no more, was attended with various success. In Spain, Ferdinand VII. alienated the affections of the 'exaltados,' or high radical portion of his subjects, by restoring the Inquisition; and when the extensive colonies, which the country had long possessed in South America, revolted in 1819, the troops refused to embark in order to quell the insurrections, and even compelled the king to give Spain herself a free constitution. Similar revolutions occurred in Portugal, Naples, and Piedmont; but in the two last-named countries, the old despotic governments were restored by the Austrians. In 1818, a congress of the allied sovereigns was held at Aix-la-Chapelle, which announced that the troops of foreign nations might be withdrawn from France, now that tranquillity had been fully restored in that kingdom.

The advocates of parliamentary reform were again on the alert in 1819; and one of the meetings intended to promote the measure was attended with loss of life. It was held at Manchester, its coryphæus being Mr. Hunt; and the magistrates, having resolved on seizing that vain and turbulent person, sent a party of yeomanry, to aid the officers of police. A tumult ensued, the yeomanry were pelted with brick-bats and broken bottles, and they would have been unhorsed and slain to a man, had they not fired, and used their sabres. The result was that many of the mob were either killed, wounded, or grievously crushed; while Hunt and his friends were taken into custody, on a charge of high treason. Though the capital allegation was subsequently abandoned, the whole party, on being found guilty of sedition, was sentenced to imprisonment. Sir Francis Burdett, likewise, who had denounced the conduct of both the magistrates of Manchester and the ministry in severe terms, in a letter addressed to his constituents, was tried for a libel and imprisoned. Six restrictive acts were thereupon passed by parliament, to prevent a recurrence of such evils; and they had in view the suppression of seditious meetings, the prohibiting of private arming and training, the stopping of the publication of seditious and blasphemous writings, and the checking of cheap periodical works, by imposing on them a tax.

In January, 1820, the nation sustained another loss, in the decease of Edward, duke of Kent, the next heir to the throne after the regent; and in six days more expired at Windsor, January 29th, his venerable parent, king George III., at the age of eighty-one, and after a reign of nearly sixty years—the longest, as it was the most eventful and memorable in the annals of Britain. The remains of the monarch were interred with due magnificence in the chapel-royal of St. George; and there can be few Englishmen who, looking at the lustre of his private character, will feel inclined to deny him the title which his virtues earned—not the prostituted one of 'Great,' but the far more glorious and enviable one of 'Good.'

EVENTS.

THE EXPEDITION TO ALGIERS, 1816.—Lord Exmouth had succeeded, in a former embassy to the savage rulers of the Barbary states, in obtaining the release from slavery of 1792 Christian people of various nations; but the Algerine government soon after, out of revenge, caused the massacre of a number of persons employed in the coral fishery at Bona, a trade under the especial protection of England. A

fleet, therefore, was speedily fitted out, to the amount of twenty-five sail, which was joined by a small Dutch squadron, and the whole was placed under the command of the same intrepid admiral, himself being in the Queen Charlotte; and this force arrived off Algiers August 16, 1816. M. Salamé, an Egyptian of respectable character and talents, was sent in a boat to the mole on that day with a paper of terms; to which, if the dey agreed in two hours, he was to hoist a signal, and a deputation would go ashore to conclude a treaty; but should he not give his assent by that time, Salamé was to return to the fleet. Half an hour beyond the appointed moment having elapsed, the messenger ordered the men to row him back: the walls of the town were then bristling with cannon, and the soldiers were at their posts, ready to obey the first command to fire. Perhaps the simple language of Salamé himself will here best describe what ensued. 'Mr. Burgess, the flag-lieutenant, having agreed with me, we hoisted the signal, that 'no answer had been given,' and began to row away towards the Queen Charlotte. At this time, I was very anxious to get out of danger; for, knowing their perfidious character, and observing that lord Exmouth, on his seeing our signal, gave orders to the fleet to bear up for the attack, I had great fear that they would fire upon us; in short, till I reached the Queen Charlotte, I was more dead than alive. After I had given my report to the admiral, I was surprised to see how his lordship was altered from what I left him in the morning; for I knew his manner was in general mild; and now he seemed to me *all-fightful*, as a fierce lion, which had been chained in its cage, and was set at liberty. His lordship's answer to me was, 'Never mind, we shall see now;' and at the same time he turned towards the officers saying, 'Be ready.' The Queen Charlotte passed through all the enemy's batteries, without firing

a gun. There were many thousand Turks and Moors looking on, astonished to see so large a ship coming all at once inside of the mole, without caring for any thing. The ship, in a most gallant manner, took up a position opposite the head of the mole; and we let go the anchor at three quarters past two o'clock, within 100 yards of the battery. About three, the Algerines of the eastern battery fired the first shot at the Impregnable; when lord Exmouth, having seen only the smoke of the gun, cried, 'That will do; fire, my fine fellows!' Before his lordship had well finished these words, our broadside was given with great cheering, and repeated three times within five minutes, and the other ships did the same. This first fire was so terrible, that more than 500 persons were killed by it; and I saw the people running away under the walls like dogs, walking upon their feet and hands. Upon the commencement of the attack, the sky became darkened by the smoke, the sun eclipsed, and the horizon dreary. My ears being deafened by the roar of the guns, and his lordship perceiving my situation, he said, 'You have done your duty, Salamé; now go below.' Upon which I began to descend from the quarterdeck, quite terrified, and not sure that I should reach the cockpit alive; for it was most tremendous to hear the crashing of the shot, and to witness the activity and courage of English seamen during battle! While near the hatchway, I saw that the companies of the two guns nearest to it wanted some wadding, but not having it, two of them cut off the breasts of their jackets where the buttons are, and rammed them into the guns instead of wadding. During all the time of the battle, not one seaman appeared tired; but, on the contrary, the longer it lasted, the more cheerfulness and pleasure were amongst them. Several of the guns now became so hot that, when fired, they recoiled with their carriages, and fixed the wheels into the flooring

of the deck ; others were thrown out of their carriages and rendered useless.

‘ At eleven at night lord Exmouth, having observed the destruction of the whole Algerine navy, and the strongest part of their batteries, made signals to the fleet, to move ; and then, with a favourable breeze, we cut our cables and made sail. I went on the poop to observe the effect of our shot on the enemy’s batteries, and saw the enemy’s ships, together with the storehouses within the mole, burning rapidly. The blaze illuminated all the bay, and the view was really most awful and beautiful. The fortifications were now nothing but heaps of rubbish, and I observed a number of people dragging the dead bodies out. When I met his lordship again, his voice was quite hoarse, and he had two slight wounds, one in the cheek, and the other in the leg. His coat was cut up by musket-balls, and grape ; and was behind as if scissors had slit it to pieces. At one in the morning, all the fleet having anchored in the middle of the bay, admiral Van Capellan came on board, and after congratulating his lordship, said, ‘ My lord, I am quite happy if I die now, after having got full satisfaction from these pirates ; and we owe a great deal to your lordship for your gallant position with the Queen Charlotte, which was the safety and protection of more than 500 persons of our squadron.’ Lord Exmouth then gave a grand supper to the officers of the ship ; and then every body went to sleep, almost like dead men.’

Salamé was sent off again next day with a letter, demanding the instant delivery to the fleet of the British consul, all Christian slaves in the dominions of the dey, and a sum of money to compensate the losses occasioned to the allies ; on peril of an assault by bombs, which would go far to annihilate the city. The dey, on the receipt of this, despatched the captain of the port and the Swedish consul, to assure lord Exmouth that

all his demands should be satisfied, if due time were allowed. The British consul was sent to the fleet on the 29th, and stated that he had been kept in chains, deprived of his property, and otherwise ill-treated ; and he went back to the town, accompanied by captain Brisbane and Salamé, to make arrangements for his final departure. ‘ At three p.m.,’ continues Salamé, ‘ we arrived inside the mole, where the dockyard, arsenal, and storehouses, had been almost destroyed ; and on going, after landing, to the top of the consul’s house, we saw that there was not a building which had not been damaged by our shots. About four, the captain of the port came to take us to the dey’s palace. The dey was in a narrow gallery, open to the sea, on the third floor, where he was seated with crossed naked legs, on a high Turkish sofa, and having a long pipe in his hand.’ After a long conference between captain Brisbane and the dey, during which Salamé acted as interpreter, the dey, who had shown much pettishness throughout, agreed to send all the slaves, that were in town, on board the fleet without delay, together with 382,500 dollars, the cost to which the kings of Sicily and Sardinia had been put by the Algerine piracies ; and such slaves as were in the interior were to follow in a day or two. The dey being at length called upon to apologize to the British consul for having treated him in a manner contrary to the law of nations, and to pay him 3000 dollars for the property of which he had been deprived, after a good deal of hesitation, complied ; and on the 30th, Salamé was again sent on shore to receive the slaves. ‘ When I arrived on shore,’ says he, ‘ it was the most pitiable sight to see in what a horrible state these more than 1000 poor wretches were ; but it is impossible to describe their joy and cheerfulness. When our boats came inside the mole, I wished to receive them by number, but could not, because they directly began to throw themselves in

by crowds; and when we were shoving with them off the shore, they all at once took off their caps and shouted in Italian, 'Long live the king of England and the English admiral!' Some of these unfortunate people had been for thirty-five years in slavery; and I only wish to present a notion of their cruel treatment, by mentioning the following. When the Barbary pirates take an European vessel, they put all on board in chains. There are three classes of chains; the one hundred pounders for strong men, the sixty for old men, and the thirty for young persons. These are placed round the body as a shash, with a piece of chain on the right leg, joined by a ring to the foot. Thus these poor slaves must work, sleep, and live always with these chains; the marks of which I have seen round their bodies in deep furrows, which become black, and as hard as bone. Being thus manacled, they are sent to cut stone from the mountains, fell trees, carry sand and stones for building, or move guns from one place to another.'

When the transports had anchored near the Queen Charlotte, the slaves came on deck, shouting for joy; and they were found to amount to 1083, of all nations. In the end, 128 more were released; which, with the 1792 before recovered by lord Exmouth, made a total of 3003 souls. At length the gallant admiral, having received full compensation in money for the expenses of the war, and placed 357,000 dollars on board the *Severn* for the king of Sicily, and 25,500 in the *Heron* for the king of Sardinia, sailed from Algiers with all the fleet, and arrived at Portsmouth on the 6th of October, after an absence from England of only two months and eight days. In this contest, the Algerines lost about 7000 men in killed and wounded, and the combined British and Dutch, 833.

VOLCANIC PHENOMENA IN ENGLAND.—In 1816 a portion of Holworth Cliff, Dorset, to the extent of an acre and a half, on which was a

cottage tenanted by Baggs, a fisherman, gradually sank thirty feet below its former level, the cottage remaining, with the exception of a slight crack in one of the walls, perfectly entire. Some time afterwards, this piece of ground made a further gradual slide in the same direction, carrying the cottage with it, without any additional injury; and during a period of nearly three years from its first removal, it occasionally continued its progress downwards, to the extent of nearly 500 feet, when it made a stand, exhibiting the entire cottage, with its accompanying garden, well stocked with gooseberry and currant trees, and various vegetables, all in the most flourishing condition. As portions of the cliff along the whole extent of this coast are constantly falling, particularly after heavy rains, this slide, as it is called, did not at the time excite any particular notice; nor was there any thing which caused further remark until 1822, when a vapour was observed to rise from that side of the cliff facing the sea. In October, 1826, smoke began to issue from three apertures at the *summit* of the same cliff; and, in March, 1827, visitors to the spot, on looking into the apertures, saw massy blocks of stone enveloped in flames, which threw out an intense heat, and a sulphureous effluvium so oppressive, as nearly to stifle several persons. The attempt to see more of the wonders of nature by digging with pickaxes, drew down a large portion of the surrounding earth, and buried the phenomenon; but the smoke has ever since continued to rise. On Christmas eve, 1839, a convulsion of the earth, most probably connected with this subterranean fire, occurred so far off as Lyme, which went inland, destroyed the new road from Charmouth to Lyme, and at Dowlands, near the sea, occasioned large tracts of soil to slide, on which were several cottages, orchards, and a copse, leaving huge chasms along the coast between Sidmouth and Scaton.

In this instance the cottages sank into the earth, just leaving the chimneys visible. A huge rock, fifty feet high, was suddenly thrown up in the sea, off Culverhole, at the moment of the convulsion. Although property was thus injured to the amount of 20,000*l.*, happily no lives were lost. The cliffs on the coast suffered no disruption. It is now clearly ascertained, that the fire in Holworth cliff is occasioned by the salt water coming in contact with the mixture of pyrites, sulphur, and iron ore, that abound at the spot. The water, perforating the loose pebbles at the base of the cliff, first effected the separation and removal of the mass of earth; and, in proof of this, it has been observed, that the equinoctial tides, owing to their coming more immediately in contact with the active internal agents, have invariably, while they lasted, increased the smoke and effluvium to a prodigious degree. At some future day, when the materials now feeding the internal fire are in part consumed, the earth will most probably sink at the summit, and exhibit to the astonished Dorset folk the boiling crater of an active volcano.

LORD AMHERST'S EMBASSY TO CHINA.—In 1816, lord Amherst was sent as ambassador-extraordinary to the emperor of China, to induce him to permit the residence of a British minister at the court of Peking. The emperor, under the pretext of wishing to accede to the proposal, demanded the prostration of the ambassador before him, after the custom of eastern nations; but when lord Amherst agreed thus to conform to court etiquette, provided a Chinese nobleman of the like rank with himself performed the same prostration to a picture of king George III., the latter was refused on the part of the emperor, and the object of the mission thus totally failed. Among the presents sent by the East India Company, through his lordship, to the emperor, were two very extraordinary clocks, the work of English artists.

They were in the form of chariots, each of which contained a lady seated, leaning her right hand on a part of the chariot; under which was a clock, little larger than a shilling, that struck, repeated, and went for eight days without requiring winding up. A bird was on the lady's finger, finely modelled, and set with diamonds and rubies, with its wings expanded as if to fly, and which was made to flutter for a considerable time, on touching a diamond button. The body of this curious bird, in which were the wheels that animated it, was less than the sixteenth part of an inch. In the lady's left hand was a golden tube, with a small round box on the top, to which was fixed a circular ornament set in diamonds, which went round in three hours. A double umbrella was over the lady's head, supported by a small fluted pillar, and under which was a bell that struck the hour, though apparently unconnected with the clock; and at the lady's feet was a golden dog, before which were two birds, set with precious stones, and apparently flying away with the chariot, which, from another secret motion, was contrived to run in any direction, while a boy appeared to push it forward. There were also flowers, ornaments, and a flying dragon, all set with precious stones, or formed of them; and the rest was made of gold, most curiously executed, and presenting a wonderful specimen of ingenuity and talent.

SPAFIELDS RIOTS, 1816.—In December, 1816, a meeting was convened in Spafields, in the suburbs of London, by Watson, Thistlewood, Preston, and Hooper, at which Mr. Hunt also attended, ostensibly with a view to petition the regent for relief. An immense concourse of the lower classes assembled; and after hearing the harangues of Watson and other demagogues, a part of the populace entered the city, and seized the fire-arms there exposed to sale. A gentleman, named Platt, on remonstrating with the mob that had entered a

gunsmith's shop on Snow-hill, was shot; and there is no calculating the amount of mischief that would have ensued, had not the magistrates and military acted most promptly. In 1817 the four leaders were tried for high treason; and the unenviable task of pleading for their lives fell to the lot of sir Charles Wetherell, who, with his usual eloquence, legal acumen, and accurate knowledge of history, after severely lashing them, obtained their acquittal.

MISSION TO ASHANTEE, 1817.—This powerful barbaric nation of Africa was first known to the Europeans in 1700; but it was not until 1811 that the British, having now the settlement of Cape Coast Castle in its neighbourhood, found it necessary to conciliate Quamina the king. It was agreed therefore by our government, that Mr. Bowditch and three other gentlemen should cross from Cape Coast to Coomassie, the Ashantee capital, where they arrived May 19. The deputation was received with great pomp, and a malefactor instantly put to the torture, 'to gratify the strangers;' the four were then ushered forward by above 5000 warriors, brandishing their scimitars, and firing guns, towards the ground where the king had stationed himself. 'The king, his tributaries, and captains,' says Mr. Bowditch, 'were resplendent in the distance, surrounded by attendants of every description, and fronted by a mass of warriors. More than a hundred bands burst forth on our arrival, with the peculiar airs of their favourite chiefs; the horns flourished defiance with the beating of innumerable drums and metal instruments, and then yielded for a while to the soft breathings of long flutes, which were truly harmonious. At least a hundred large umbrellas, which could shelter thirty persons each, were sprung up and down by the bearers with brilliant effect, being made of the most showy cloths and silks, and crowned with crescents, pelicans, elephants, and swords of gold; while innumerable

smaller ones, of various coloured stripes, were crowded in the intervals.

'The prolonged flourishes of the horns, and a deafening tumult of drums, announced that we were approaching the king. We were already passing the principal officers of his household: the chamberlain, the gold-coin blower, the captain of the messengers, the captain for royal executions, the captain of the market, the keeper of the royal burial-ground, and the master of the bands, sat surrounded by a retinue and splendour, which bespoke the dignity and importance of their posts. The executioner, a man of immense size, wore a massive gold hatchet on his breast; and the execution-stool was held before him, clotted in blood, and partly covered with a caul of fat. The king's four linguists were encircled by a splendour inferior to none; and their peculiar insignia, gold canes, were elevated in all directions, tied in bundles, like fasces. The keeper of the treasury added to his own magnificence by the ostentatious display of his service: the blow-pan boxes, scales, and weights, were of solid gold. A delay of some minutes, whilst we severally approached to receive the king's hand, afforded us a thorough view of Quamina. His deportment especially excited my attention: his manners were majestic, yet courteous, and he did not allow his surprise to beguile him for a moment of the composure of the monarch. He appeared about thirty-eight years of age, was somewhat corpulent, and possessed a benevolent countenance. He wore a fillet of aggrè beads round his temples, and had a necklace and bracelets; and his fingers were covered with rings. His waistcloth was of a dark green silk, a pointed diadem was elegantly painted in white on his forehead, and the pattern of an epaulet on each shoulder; and an ornament like a full-blown rose covered his whole breast. His gold ankle-strings were of delicate workman-

ship, and his sandals, of soft white leather, were embossed with sap-phires. He was seated in a low chair, richly ornamented with gold, having a pair of gold castanets on his finger and thumb, which he clapped to enforce silence; while his numerous guards waved elephants' tails and plumes of feathers like a small cloud before him.

Having passed on, and reached the end of the vast place of assembly, we were desired to seat ourselves under a tree, to receive the compliments of the king and all his officers in turn. The chief officers dismounted as they arrived within thirty yards of us, their principal captains preceding them, and a body of soldiers following with their arms reversed; then came their bands, gold canes, pipes, and elephants' tails. The chief, with a small body-guard, under his umbrella, was generally supported around the waist by the hands of his favourite slave; whilst captains halloed his warlike deeds and *strong names*, which were reiterated with the voices of stentors by those before and behind. Old captains of secondary rank were carried on the shoulders of strong slaves; but a more interesting sight was presented in the young caboceers, five and six years of age, who, overweighed by ornaments, were carried in the same manner under canopies. A band of Fetishmen, or priests, wheeled round and round as they passed, with amazing velocity. Manner was as various as ornament; some danced by with irresistible buffoonery; some with a gesture and carriage of defiance; one distinguished caboceer performed the war-dance, with a large spear, which grazed us at every bound he made; but the greater number passed us with order and dignity, some slipping one sandal, some both, some turning round, after taking each of us by the hand; the attendants of others knelt before them, throwing dust upon their heads; and the Moors apparently vouchsafed us a blessing. It was nearly eight o'clock before the

king approached. It was a beautiful starlight night, and the torches which preceded him displayed the splendour of his regalia, and made the human trophies of the soldiers more awfully imposing. He stopped to inquire our names a second time, and to wish us a good night, which he did in a mild and deliberate manner: he was followed by his aunts, cousins, and others of his family, having rows of fine gold chains around their necks. Numerous chiefs succeeded, and it was long before we were at liberty to retire; when we agreed in estimating the number of warriors we had seen, at 30,000.' ..

The party, some time after, were present at the grand annual ceremonial of yam-gathering, which is a species of saturnalia, and a period of complete licence. On one of the days, all the heads of the kings and caboceers whose states had been conquered, from Sai Tootoo to the present reign, were displayed by two parties of executioners; who passed in an impassioned dance, clashing their knives on the skulls, in which sprigs of thyme were inserted to keep the spirits from troubling the king. On another day, a large quantity of rum was ordered to be poured into brass pans, in various parts of the town, the crowd pressing around, and drinking like hogs; freemen and slaves, women and children, striking, kicking, and trampling each other under foot, and many falling head foremost into the pans. In less than an hour, excepting the principal men, not a sober person was to be seen, whether man, woman, or child! On another day, 100 culprits were barbarously executed for the amusement of the crowd: several slaves were also sacrificed over a large brass pan, their blood mingling with the various vegetable and animal matter within, to complete the charm, and produce invincible fetish. All the chiefs kill several slaves, that their blood may flow into the hole whence the new yam is taken. Those who cannot afford to *kill* slaves, take the head

of one already sacrificed, and place it on the hole.

As Ashantee is one of the states from which slaves have been commonly taken for our West India settlements, it is fair to reflect upon the substance of Mr. Bowditch's statement in the following passages; and it becomes a question (admitting, as we do, the moral *injustice* of slavery), whether the exchange of a regulated foreign servitude for a domestic state so fraught with evils of the most malignant kind, be not beneficial, rather than otherwise, to the interests of the coloured tribes. 'The decease of a person is announced by a discharge of musketry proportionate to his rank, or the wealth of his family. In an instant you see a crowd of slaves burst from the house, and run towards the bush, flattering themselves that the hindmost, or those surprised in the house, will furnish the human victims for sacrifice, if they can but secrete themselves until the rite is over. The body is then handsomely dressed in silk and gold, and laid out on the bed, with the richest clothes beside it. One or two slaves are sacrificed at the door of the house. On the death of a king, his brothers, sons, and nephews, affecting temporary insanity, burst forth with muskets, and fire promiscuously among the crowd; even a man of rank, if they meet him, is their victim; nor is their murder of him, or of any other, visited or prevented; the scene can scarcely be imagined. Few persons of rank dare to stir from their houses for the first two or three days; but they religiously drive forth all their vassals and slaves, as the most acceptable composition for their own absence. The king's Ocras are all murdered on his tomb, to the number of a hundred or more, and women in abundance. I was assured by several, that the offering for Sai Quamina was repeated weekly for three months; and that 200 slaves were sacrificed, and twenty-five barrels of powder fired, each time. But the

custom for the king's mother, the regent of the kingdom during the invasion of the Fantees, is most celebrated. The king himself devoted 3000 victims, and twenty-five barrels of powder! The large towns furnished 100 victims, and twenty barrels of powder each, and most of the smaller towns ten victims, and two barrels of powder each.' Mr. Bowditch estimates the number of military in Ashantee at 204,000.

SHIPWRECKS OF THE ALCESTE AND MEDUSA, 1817.—The two melancholy events in question are brought together for the sake of contrasting the good consequences of discipline, moral management, and a trust in Providence, with the evils resulting from the neglect of order, and an attempt to live without God in the world. Lord Amherst was returning from his embassy to China, on board the Alceste frigate, captain Maxwell, when the vessel struck, February 18, 1817, on a reef of sunken rocks, near Gaspar island, and remained immovable. It was soon too evident, from the injuries she had received, that any attempt to get her off would be attended with fatal consequences; so that the best bower-anchor was let go to keep her fast, and the pumps were abandoned. The ambassador and his suite, with a party of mariners under captain Hoppner, embarked as soon as possible for Java, in the barge and cutter, to obtain assistance; when the captain and crew contrived to fix their abode on the island of Pulo Leat, and to gather from the wreck a sufficiency of stores, to supply the whole, by an excellent management, until the arrival of the Ternate. This vessel, despatched by Lord Amherst, conveyed the party safely from Pulo Leat, March 3rd, and landed them safely on the 9th at Batavia. While on the island, they were forcibly attacked by the piratical Malays, who burned the wreck, and occasioned still greater deprivations to the crew; but captain Maxwell, by his admirable arrangements, preserved his officers and men from the

horrors of anarchy, and instructed them, by his own example, to rely on that Power which is able to save, however dire the calamity that oppresses. Far different from this had been the conduct of a large portion on board *The Medusa*, a French frigate of forty-four guns, when she met with a similar misfortune.

The *Medusa* had sailed in June, 1816, from Aix, in France, with 400 persons, to take possession of the settlement on the African coast between cape Blanco and the mouth of the Gambia, ceded by Britain on the peace of 1815. Off cape Finisterre, the ship stranded on a sandbank, June 22. Nothing could exceed the consternation of all on board; and as six boats could not take on board 400 men, the captain soon drew the plan of a raft, capable, as it was said, of carrying 200 men, with provisions *for all*; the crews of the boats (the other 200), to come at meal-time to the raft for their rations. The soldiers were the first sent on the raft; they wished to take with them their muskets and some rounds of ammunition, but this was opposed, though the officers kept their fowling-pieces and pistols. In all, there were on the raft 150 persons, twenty-nine of whom were sailors; there was one woman, and the remainder were soldiers. At seven on the morning of the 5th of July the signal of departure was given; when four of the boats, stood out to sea, and the raft soon followed, towed by the barge and longboat. The party on the raft, however, were sadly off for provisions; several casks of flour, six barrels of wine, and two small casks of water had been put upon it; but the weight had caused it to sink so much, that it became necessary to throw the flour into the sea. The people were packed so closely that they could not stir; and every where, except in the centre, the water rose as high as the waist.

After proceeding some leagues, first the barge and then the longboat threw off the tow-rope, notwithstand-

ing the urgent appeals of the poor creatures on the raft; so that the machine was left alone on the vast ocean. 'Our consternation,' says a survivor, 'was beyond description: the soldiers and sailors immediately gave themselves up to despair; nor could we of the ship's company avoid sharing their fears, though we showed more fortitude. When quiet was a little restored, we began to feel severely the calls of hunger; and after we had taken our first meal, which consisted of biscuit-paste and wine, we fixed on the quantity of provisions which should be daily distributed to each man. Many of the officers now employed themselves in encouraging the soldiers to take revenge on their companions when they should reach the shore. Though surrounded by dangers, they felt no gratitude to the Almighty for having supported them thus long; but, at a moment when they most needed His protecting arm, their minds were filled with anger and revenge, and they uttered nothing but expressions of rage. In the evening a better spirit prevailed; our prayers were directed with fervour to Heaven, and we derived from this salutary exercise the comfort of hope. Night came on, the wind freshened, and the sea rose. The waves struck with violence against the raft, and always threw down those that were unaccustomed to the sea, as indeed were most of our companions. In the middle of the night the weather became worse; the waves now rolled over us and threw us down with violence; and the cries of the people mingled awfully with the roaring of the waters.' About seven in the morning the sea became calm, and the wind fell; and we then found that twelve had slipped between the openings of the raft, and perished. The next day was fine, and we spent it in great tranquillity; every one felt satisfied that the boats would shortly appear: evening came, however, and they did not. Despair now seized the people: and when night came on, the soldiers and sailors, con-

sidering their destruction inevitable, resolved to drown the sense of their situation by drinking. Rushing towards a cask of wine, and making a large hole in it, they drank a considerable quantity; but in the empty state of their stomachs, the wine so excited them, that they resolved to rid themselves of their officers, and then to destroy the raft. With this design, one of them moved to the edge with a boarding hatchet, and began to strike at the ropes: we therefore rushed upon this ringleader, and though he made a desperate resistance, despatched him. Some passengers and subalterns now happily joined us; for the mutineers were going to make a general attack on us, and the fight became general. During the contest, in which several perished, the wretches threw into the sea, together with her husband, the unfortunate woman who was on board; Messrs. Correard and Lavillette, however, plunged and saved them, and the tumult being shortly after, to all appearance, subdued, many asked pardon of us on their knees. But when almost midnight, the soldiers again rushed upon us with the fury of madmen; and such of them as had no arms, bit their adversaries in the most cruel manner. Having at length repulsed some, and appeased others, we were again for a time in peace.

The manner in which we were severally affected this night deserves to be mentioned. Mr. Savigny had most agreeable visions; he fancied himself in a rich and highly-cultivated country, surrounded by happy companions. Some desired their companions not to fear, that they were going to look for succour, and would soon return; they then plunged into the sea. Others became furious, and rushed on their comrades with drawn swords, asking for the wing of a chicken, or some bread. Some, thinking themselves still aboard the frigate, called for their hammocks, that they might go below to sleep. Others imagined they saw ships, or a harbour, behind

which was a noble city. Mr. Correard believed he was in Italy, enjoying all the delights of that country: one of the officers said to him, 'I recollect that we have been deserted by the boats, but don't be afraid, I have just written to the governor, and in a few hours we shall be in safety.' It is true these illusions did not last for any time, because the noise and confusion before us constantly broke them; but they returned on us, and always with more force, during the whole night.

On the return of day, we found that sixty-five had perished during the night; but we had only lost two of our party, and not a single officer. This wonderful difference can only be ascribed to the comparative strength of mind we displayed; and it is a striking proof of the power every man has of resisting evil, if he will not give way to despair. We had now only one cask of wine to be divided amongst sixty men, and it was necessary therefore to put ourselves on half allowance. For forty-eight hours we had taken nothing solid, and now resolved on making every possible exertion to catch some fish; we made hooks of the soldiers' tags, but the current drew them under the raft; we bent a bayonet also, to catch sharks, and a shark bit at and straightened it. Some tried to support existence by feeding on the dead bodies of their companions; while others gnawed the soldiers' belts and cartridge-boxes. The day was calm, and our agitation of mind yielded for a moment to hope; we expected to see either the boats or some ship: we prayed to God, and put our trust in Him. Night came on, still no assistance; the wind, however, was not so high, and the sea was calmer: we took some minutes' rest, but the most frightful dreams disturbed us. Wasted away by hunger and thirst, standing in water up to our knees, and not able to take rest but in that position, we bore in our looks the marks of approaching death. The morning of the fourth day after our departure

from the frigate, presented to our view the dead bodies of twelve of our companions who had expired during the night : all these with the exception of one, were committed to the deep. This day also was fine, and our minds again began to indulge in hopes ; about four o'clock in the evening a shoal of flying-fish passed under the raft, and a great number of them got entangled in the spaces between the timbers ; we threw ourselves upon them and caught about 200. We immediately returned thanks to God for this unlooked-for relief ; and felt greatly refreshed by the meal they afforded us. Had it not been for another rebellion, we might have passed a comfortable night ; but some Spaniards, Italians, and negroes, who had hitherto taken no part with the mutineers, formed a plot to throw us all into the sea, in order to get possession of a bag of money, which we had tied to the mast-head, as a common fund to be made use of, should we reach the land ! We were again, therefore, obliged to take arms, and were supported by the sailors, who seized the ringleader and threw him into the sea. A desperate combat ensued, and the fatal raft was quickly piled with dead bodies ; but at length the mutineers being repulsed, and quiet restored, we endeavoured to take a little sleep.

‘ On the fifth morning we found our number reduced to thirty, we had lost five of our faithful sailors, and those who still survived were in a most deplorable state. The seawater had stripped the skin from our feet and legs ; we were covered with wounds and bruises, which, constantly irritated by the salt-water, gave us intolerable pain : only twenty of us were able to stand upright, or move about ; and we had only wine enough for four days, and scarcely a dozen fish. Twelve, and amongst them the woman, were now so ill, that there was no hope of their surviving ; and as they might live long enough to reduce our stock to a very low ebb, we

came to the horrible and unjustifiable resolution of throwing them into the sea. Three sailors and a soldier took the task on themselves ; and while it was being executed, we turned away our eyes from the awful sight, trusting that, in thus endeavouring to prolong our own lives, we were shortening theirs but a few hours. This gave us the means of subsistence for six additional days. On the ninth day, a white butterfly, of the kind so common in France, flew over our heads, and settled on the sail, inspiring us with the pleasing hope that we were near land : some of us already were looking on this wretched morsel with desire, whilst others, considering it the harbinger of our deliverance, took it under their protection. Trifling as was the circumstance of an insect settling upon our raft, it animated us to fresh exertions. We had recourse to every expedient which might lessen the wretchedness of our situation. We detached some planks from the raft, and made a sort of platform on which to lie down ; and various devices were resorted to, to relieve our dreadful thirst. It will scarcely be believed that, on one occasion, we contended for two small phials of a liquor for cleaning the teeth, which were husbanded with the greatest care, two drops of it producing a delightfully soothing sensation. One of us had found an empty bottle, which still retained some scent of the perfume it had formerly held ; to smell at this for an instant appeared the highest enjoyment. Some kept their wine, and sucked it slowly through a quill ; the intoxication, however, it produced upon their debilitated frames was remarkable, even inciting them to angry disputes, and to destroy themselves. Three soon died.

‘ On the 16th of July, eight of us resolved on trying to reach the coast, to which we supposed ourselves near, on a smaller raft, which we constructed of boards and spars ; but when tried, it immediately upset. We therefore gave it up, resolving to wait upon the raft for death ; which,

unless we were shortly relieved, could not be very distant. On the morning of the 17th, the sun shone brightly; and when we had addressed our prayers to the Almighty, we distributed the rations of wine. Whilst each was taking his portion, an officer discovered a ship in the horizon, and with a shout of joy informed us of it. It is impossible to describe the ecstasy we felt at the sight; each looked upon his delivery as certain, and returned repeated thanks to God. Still, in the midst of these hopes, we were apprehensive we might not be seen. We straightened some hoops, and to the end fastened some handkerchiefs of different colours. We then united our efforts, and raised a man to the top of the mast, who waved these flags. For half an hour we were suspended between hope and fear; some of us thought that the vessel was coming nearer, whilst others, with more accuracy, asserted that she was making sail away from us. In fact, in a short time the vessel disappeared. We now resigned ourselves to despair; envying even those whom death had taken away from the sufferings we were now to undergo.

‘We had passed two hours in desponding reflections, when the master-gunner, who was in the fore part of the raft, suddenly uttered a loud cry of ‘We are saved,—the brig is close to us!’ We rushed from an awning under which we had been huddling, and found that she was in fact only a mile distant, and was steering directly towards us, under a press of sail. Joy now again succeeded to despair, we embraced each other, and burst into tears: even those whose wounds rendered them incapable of more exertion, dragged themselves to the side of the raft, to enjoy the sight of the vessel, which we recognised to be the *Argus*. The crew waved their hats, to express their pleasure at having come to our relief; and in a short time we were all (fifteen in number) on board the brig, where were some who had been saved in the boats. Every one was

affected to see our miserable condition; ten out of the fifteen were scarcely able to move; the skin was entirely stripped from our limbs, our eyes were sunk, our beards long, and we were in the most emaciated condition; but the care of the surgeon, and the kind attention of every one on board, soon wrought in us the most favourable change.

‘A party in a schooner reached the *Medusa* fifty-two days after she had been abandoned; but what was their astonishment to find, that three of the miserable wretches left on board had outlived their sufferings, though apparently now at the point of death. They had kept in separate corners of the wreck, which they never quitted but to look for food; and this had latterly consisted of tallow and a little bacon. If on these occasions they accidentally met, they used to run at each other with drawn knives; so completely had selfishness stifled that sympathy which fellow sufferers are disposed to feel for each other. It is a fact worthy of record, that so long as these men abstained from strong liquor, they were able to support the hardships of their situation in a surprising manner; but when they began to drink brandy, their strength rapidly diminished. The poor fellows received all the attention which their situation required, were safely conveyed by the schooner to Senegal, and recovered.’

WATERLOO BRIDGE COMPLETED 1817.—It is longer than any other bridge over the Thames, and is perfectly level. The cost exceeded a million sterling; and from its stability, it is calculated to remain a monument of architectural beauty and simplicity to remote ages. It has nine elliptical arches, each of 120 feet span; and is forty-two feet broad, and 1242 feet long. It was projected as the Strand bridge, when begun in 1811; but the victory of Waterloo, before its completion, and its formal opening by the conqueror in person, occasioned the change of name.

SAYINGS-BANKS ESTABLISHED 1817.

—Many charitable individuals had induced certain among the labouring classes to put by weekly a small portion of their earnings, as a provision for declining years; and had fixed upon secure depositories for such savings. Mr. Smith, a clergyman at Wendover, Bucks, was perhaps the first who systematically planned a savings-bank, 1799, by inducing his parishioners to bring to him every Sunday evening during the summer months, any sum, from twopence upwards, which they were inclined to lay by from their weekly wages. In 1817 the plan was thought worthy of parliamentary notice; and a law was passed, the better to preserve these collections for the ultimate benefit of the depositors, whereby government security was given, and a fair interest allowed. When, therefore, the trustees of any savings-bank receive 50*l.* they must pay it into the national fund, and receive, in lieu, from the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, a debenture bearing interest 3*l.* 16*s.* 0*d.* per cent. per year, and allow to the depositors an interest of 2½*d.* per day, or 3*l.* 8*s.* 5½*d.* per cent. per year, taking the balance to themselves for the expenses of the bank, viz., one farthing per cent. per day. The trustees are not allowed to receive deposits from any whose previous deposits have amounted to 150*l.*; and when the balance due to any one depositor amounts with interest to 200*l.*, no further interest is to be allowed. Persons are not allowed to subscribe into more than one savings-bank at a time. The total number of these banks in England, Wales, and Ireland (for Scotland seems to be content with the interest given on small deposits by private bankers), was recently 500, with funds amounting to 16,000,000 sterling.

THE ADULT ORPHAN INSTITUTION FOUNDED, 1817.—This is one of the 'heaven-originated' charities of England's metropolis, and was planned (at the suggestion of the excellent princess Charlotte of Saxe Coburg)

among the royal family, and some noblemen and gentlemen, who compassionated the state of deprivation in which the children of clergymen, and of military and naval officers, are often left by the premature loss of their parents; a state which they, of all young persons, are usually least prepared to endure. In some instances, the widows of military and naval officers are supported by the state; but for the bereft families of the clergy there is no legal provision. The care of the latter peculiarly therefore merits our attention. Accustomed, from their education and connexions, to the respect of their neighbourhood, and, from their retired habits, unacquainted with the usages of the world, see them on a sudden, by the decease of the husband and father, driven from their very home, and at once outcasts and aliens upon earth! They 'cannot dig—to beg they are ashamed;' while the sensibility of cultivated minds gives keenness to their sufferings, sharpens every pang, and flings a horror over every privation.

SINGAPORE MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1818.—This island is at the southern extremity of Malacca, thirty miles long and twelve broad, and once belonged to the Portuguese and Dutch. With the consent of the Malay princes of Johore, and of the king of Holland, the English formed a settlement thereon, 1818; and it has from that period gone on improving as a commercial station. Singapore is low and flat, with an extensive chain of saline and freshwater marshes; in several parts it is covered with lofty timber and luxuriant vegetation. On the east of the harbour, enterprising British merchants are erecting substantial and ornamental houses fronting the sea, presenting a strange contrast to the wretched tenements of the Malays. The ground is generally raised three feet, and the mansions have a superb entrance, by an ascent of granite stairs; then there is an elegant portico, supported by Grecian columns:

the rooms are lofty, with Venetian windows down to the floor, and furnished in a luxurious manner; each mansion is provided with its baths, billiard-tables, &c., and its grounds are tastily laid out with shrubs of beautiful foliage, the *tout ensemble* affording a most picturesque prospect from the shipping in the roadstead. As the isle is used rather as an entrepot than for its own produce, it has no staple for export; the agaragar, a sea-weed like fern, much valued in China, is its most useful article of growth; and from it glue, paint, and a rich jelly used for sweetmeats, are extracted. Sago is the only manufacture, and is brought in its rough state to the isle from Borneo. For the government, *see* Penang.

SOUTHWARK BRIDGE COMPLETED, 1819.—It is a magnificent structure of cast-iron, with stone piers, designed by Mr. Rennie, and consists of three arches, the centre one having a span of 240 feet. The bridge and the approaches cost 800,000*l.*, with a weight of iron of 5780 tons; being one of the most stupendous works ever formed of such materials.

THE CHINESE PRIMROSE INTRODUCED, 1819, FROM THE EAST.—This, being one of the few plants which enliven the greenhouse from November to February, must be considered a great horticultural treasure. The first root flowered in the collection of Lady Farnborough, 1820.

THE RESUSCITATION OF POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM, 1820. It was in 1713, that actual proof was obtained of the situation of these two cities, when some labourers, in digging a well, struck upon a statue on the benches of a theatre of Herculaneum. The king of Sicily hereupon directed that every thing brought from beneath should be deposited in his palace; and in a few years a work in six vols. folio was published, giving an account of such discoveries. Herculaneum had been doubly sealed down by torrents of lava that had issued subsequently to the eruption of '79, A. D.; insomuch that a mass of

gray stone, twenty-four feet in depth, had been formed everywhere over it; while Pompeii had only loose ashes above it. Galleries, therefore, were cut to the principal buildings of Herculaneum, and a few of them were cleared; but at Pompeii the labourers, in very recent years, have been far more successful. The latter city, after remaining concealed for nearly 1800 years, has been almost wholly recovered; and, with the exception of roofs, its houses look as if they had been tenanted but yesterday, and as if they might be inhabited to-morrow. That it is the ancient city of Pompeii, is proved by an inscription over one of the principal gates. In all instances, the roofs have been destroyed by the matter that pressed upon them. The interior walls of the better classes of houses are generally ornamented with mouldings in stucco, and with paintings of fruit, flowers, landscapes, figures, or arabesques; and, where only a plain surface was painted, the colours, such as green, blue, and purple, are as fresh as if the painter's brush had just passed over them. In many instances, the floors of the halls and rooms are covered with mosaic. On the threshold of one private house there is written, in mosaic and large capital letters, the Roman term of salutation, *salve* (welcome). At the entrance of another house there is spiritedly represented in mosaic on the floor, the figure of a fierce chained dog in the act of flying at some one, and the words *cave canem* (beware of the dog) inscribed beneath. The chain and the jagged collar are much the same we now use; and the dog is not unlike the Corsican bull-dog, much prized by the modern Italians as a house-dog, on account of its strength, boldness, and ferocity. In some cases, the mosaic work, that covers the rooms like a carpet, merely represents a minutely dotted surface of pieces of black and white marble, with or without a fancy border round it. In other cases more colours are employed; and fantastic

and elegant patterns delineated. The house of Sallust has been clearly ascertained; also those of various official personages, such as the quæstor; while shops of different artisans, with the implements of their trade, have been admirably identified. In almost every house, even of the better order, was a room devoted, as a shop, to the sale of the overplus produce of the owner's estate.

'The remains of Pompeii,' says Mr. Matthews, 'afford a truly interesting spectacle; it is like a resurrection from the dead. The progress of time and decay is arrested; and you are admitted to the temples, the theatres, and the domestic privacy of a people, who have ceased to exist for seventeen centuries. Nothing is wanting but the inhabitants. Even now, a morning's walk through the solemn silent streets of Pompeii, will give you a livelier idea of their modes of life than all the books in the world. They seem, like the French of the present day, to have existed only in public. Their theatres, temples, basilicas, forums, are on the most splendid scale; but in their private dwellings we discover little or no attention to comfort. The houses have a small court, round which the rooms are built, which are rather cells than rooms; the greater part are without windows, and receive light only from the door. There are no chimneys; the smoke of the kitchen, which is usually low and dark, must have found its way through a hole in the ceiling. The doors are so low, that you are obliged to stoop to pass through them. The stucco paintings with which the walls are covered, are but little injured; and upon being wetted, they appear as fresh as ever. Brown, red, yellow, and blue, are the prevailing colours. If it were not for the pilfering propensity of visitors, we might have seen every thing as it really was left at the time of the great calamity: even to the skeleton, which was found with a purse of gold in its hand, trying to run away from the impending destruction,

and exhibiting 'the ruling passion strong in death.' The amphitheatre is very perfect, as indeed are the other two theatres intended for dramatic representations; though it is evident that they had sustained some injury from the earthquake, which had already much damaged this devoted town, before its final destruction by the eruption of Vesuvius. The paintings on the walls of the amphitheatre represent the combats of gladiators and wild beasts, the dens of which remain just as they were. The two theatres are as close together as our Drury-lane and Covent-garden. The larger one, which might have contained 5000 persons, like the amphitheatres, had no roof, but was open to the light of day. The stage is very much circumscribed: there is no depth; and there are consequently no side scenes; the form and appearance are like those of our own theatres when the drop scene is down. In the back scene of the Roman stage, which, instead of canvass, is composed of unchangeable brick and marble, are three doors; and there are two others on the sides, answering to our stage-doors. The little theatre is in better preservation than the other; and it is supposed this was intended for musical entertainments. The temple of Isis has suffered little injury; the statues, indeed, have been taken away; but you see the very altar on which the victims were offered; and you may now ascend without ceremony the private stairs which led to the sanctum sanctorum of the goddess.

'The streets are very narrow; the marks of wheels on the pavement show that carriages were in use; but there must have been some regulation to prevent their meeting each other; for one carriage would have occupied the whole of the street, except the narrow *trottoir*, raised on each side for foot passengers, for whose accommodation there are also raised stepping-stones, in order to cross from one side to the other. There is often an emblem over the

door of a house, that determines the profession of its former owner. The word *Salve* on one, seems to denote that it was an inn, as we have in our days the sign of *The Salutation*. Many of the paintings on the walls are very elegant in taste and design; and they often assist us in ascertaining the uses for which the different rooms were intended. For example, in the baths we find Tritons and Naiads; in the bedchambers Morpheus scatters his poppies; and in the eating-room a sacrifice to Æsculapius teaches us, 'that we should eat to live, and not live to eat.' In one of these rooms are the remains of a triclinium. A baker's shop is as plainly indicated, as if the loaves were now at his window. There is a mill for the grinding of corn, and an oven for baking; and the surgeon and druggist have also been traced, by the quality of the articles found in their respective dwellings.

But the most complete specimen that we have of an ancient residence, is the villa which has been discovered at a small distance without the gate. It is on a more splendid scale than any of the houses in the town; and it has been preserved with scarcely any injury. Some have imagined it to be the Pompeianum, or villa of Cicero. Be this as it may, it must have belonged to a man of taste. Situated on a sloping bank, the front entrance opens as it were into the first floor; below which, on the garden side, into which the house looks (for the door is the only aperture on the road side) is a ground floor, with spacious arcades and open rooms, all facing the garden; and above are the sleeping-rooms. The walls and ceilings of this villa are ornamented with paintings, all which have a relation to the uses of the apartments in which they are placed. In the middle of the garden there is a reservoir of water, surrounded by columns; and the ancient well still remains. Though we have many specimens of Roman glass in their drinking-vessels, it has been doubted whe-

ther they were acquainted with the use of it for windows. Swinburne, however, in describing this villa, says, 'in the window of a bedchamber some panes of glass are still remaining.' This would seem to decide the question; but they remain no longer. The host was fond of conviviality, if we may judge from the dimensions of his cellar, which extends under the whole of the house and the arcades also; and many of the amphoræ remain, in which the wine was stowed. It was here that the skeletons of twenty-seven poor wretches were found, who took refuge from the fiery shower that would have killed them at once, to suffer the lingering torments of being starved to death. It was in one of the porticoes leading to the outward entrance, that the bones, supposed to be those of the master of the house, were found with a key in one hand, and a purse of gold in the other. So much for Pompeii! I lingered among its ruins till the close of evening; and have seldom passed a day with feelings of interest so strongly excited, or with impressions of the transient nature of all human possessions so strongly enforced, as by the solemn solitudes of this resuscitated town.

From recent discoveries it is evident that at least one other town, in addition to the two restored, is lying safely under the matter of Vesuvius.

ASSASSINATION OF THE DUKE OF BERRI, 1820.—This prince, the second son of the count d'Artois, and nephew of Louis XVIII. of France, left the opera-house at Paris, at eleven o'clock on the night of February 13th with his duchess, and, after handing her into the carriage, was returning to his box in the theatre, when a man, named Louvel, forcibly grasped his shoulder, and plunged into his bosom, up to the handle, a poniard six inches long. The assassin succeeded in getting out of the immediate crowd, but was followed and secured by two gentlemen of the court. The duke was carried into a room of the theatre, and laid

upon benches and cushions; when the wound was proved to be mortal. His unhappy father, and several other members of the family, were soon in attendance. When the royal sufferer had been placed in the easiest position that could be devised, he called for 'his daughter, and the bishop of Angoulême;' and when the infant princess was brought to him in her cradle, he kissed her, and gave her his benediction, saying, 'Poor infant! may you be less unfortunate than the rest of your house!' Although topical bleedings relieved the duke, he felt convinced that his end was approaching; and having made a confession before all present of the sins he acknowledged he had committed, he asked pardon of God for all his offences, and of his fellow men, for such of his actions as might have tended to scandalize them. He then received the last sacrament, at the hands of the curé of St. Roch. The king himself arrived at half-past five in the morning of the 14th; and the duke, on seeing his royal uncle

enter the room, said in a low tone, 'Pardon, sire, the man who struck the blow! pardon him! I must have unknowingly offended him!' King Louis, being grievously affected, was advised by the physician, M. Dupuytron, to retire; but his majesty exclaimed, 'I am not afraid to look upon death: I have a last duty to discharge to my son.' At that moment the duke expired. The king then, taking the arm of M. Dupuytron, approached the bed, closed the eyes of his nephew, and took a last adieu.

The assassin Louvel was tried on the 5th of June; and he persisted in declaring that he had no accomplices, but that he considered he had done his country a service in ridding it of the only Bourbon who was likely, from his youth, to give his family an heir. He was an Atheist, and had studied Paine's 'Age of Reason' and 'Rights of Man.' He was found guilty, and was guillotined on the 7th at the Place de Grève.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVIII. RESTORED.—The victory of Waterloo, June 18th, 1815, again gave to king Louis the throne of his ancestors; and kind-hearted as he confessedly was, he with regret assented to the trial for high-treason of several functionaries, who, in spite of their previous oaths, had favoured and aided the recent usurpation. After executing marshal Ney and a few others, the chamber of deputies, which was highly loyalist, exiled the remainder, together with all living who had voted for the death of Louis XVI. The ministry of Louis, however, was soon found to display a greater desire for the restoration of absolutism, than the chamber thought consistent with the king's original promise; and accordingly, in 1818, a more liberal cabinet was formed under count Decazes. The nation appeared to rejoice thoroughly in the change; but the factions of Jacobins and Bu-

napartists contrived speedily to gain an ascendancy, which was only checked by the proceedings consequent on the atrocious assassination by the former of the king's nephew, the duc de Berri, 1820. The prince was entering the opera-house from his carriage, when one Louvel mortally wounded him with a poniard, exclaiming that he rejoiced in ridding the world of a Bourbon. A royalist administration was thereupon again summoned, with M. Villèle at the head; the law of election was amended, the newspapers were placed under a censorship, and other measures of the old regime were adopted. No open violation, however, of the constitution granted by Louis, was involved in these proceedings. In 1823 the king, in concert with the northern powers, sent an army into Spain, under his nephew, the duc d'Angoulême, to rescue Ferdinand VII. from his state of thralldom, which it ef-

fect. Louis XVIII. had found his health sensibly decline soon after the murder of the duc de Berri, an event which for a long time deeply affected him; and he at length died, 1824, at the age of 69, very generally lamented by the nation. He left no issue.

Whatever may be the opinion of such as look but superficially upon human affairs, great applause is due to him who, called to rule over a people long accustomed to mistake the world's wonder at their proceedings for admiration, contrived to conduct their affairs without offending any party amongst them whatever. This Louis XVIII. assuredly did; and the amiable nature of his private character is clearly shown by his few published letters—for king's letters are usually few—written to his friend M. d'Avaray, from Hartwell. The count d'Avaray had accompanied him in his lucky escape from Paris, in June, 1793, and continued attached to his person in all his subsequent vicissitudes, more on the footing of a private friend than of a courtier, until 1810; when a pulmonary complaint compelled him to pass the winter at Madeira, where he died in the next year. We have room only for such of the epistles as allude to the queen's decease. Marie Josephine, of Savoy, the wife of Louis, died at Hartwell, Nov. 1810; and the distressed monarch thus writes:

Hartwell, Jan. 7, 1811. Fear nothing for my health. It has not suffered. I am already at the point where I believe I shall remain—no more tears—no more pangs of sorrow; but a sincere regret, a void in my life, which I feel an hundred times a day. A thought occurs to me—sad, or gay, or indifferent—no matter, a recollection of something old, or an emotion at something new; I find myself saying mechanically 'I must tell *her* this,' and then I recollect my loss, the illusion vanishes, and I say to myself, 'the day of those *soft intercourses* is gone for ever.' All this does not hinder my sleeping and eating, nor taking part

in the conversation, nor even laughing when the occasion occurs; but the sad thought that she is gone *for ever*, mixes itself with every thing, and, like a drop of wormwood in food or drink, imbitters the flavour without entirely destroying it.' And again, two months later—'March 13, 1811. My grief has lost its *sharpness*, but it does not wear off—any trifle awakens it afresh. A bit of paper, accidentally marked with two letters by which I used to designate *her*, has this morning painfully reminded me that I shall do so no more. The other day the duke of Havre, on coming into the room before dinner, followed by the duchess of Serant, whom I did not see, stepped aside, as he used to do for *her* in happier times. This accident created a momentary illusion, the recovery from which was painful; but still more painful, and which I feel as an additional calamity, is that the time is come which must divide me from even her dear remains. Wishes, which I could not resist, oblige me to send them to the tomb of her ancestors in Savoy. The removal will take place on Tuesday. It cannot be helped—but I feel that I am again to be separated from her.' Again, a month later, 'April 1. You know how much I love spring, how delighted I have always been with the first fine days, the first leaves, the first flowers. The delight is not destroyed, but that *drop of wormwood* mixes itself with it. When I breathe this genial air, I say, it would have done *her* so much good! We have a white camellia here, which never has flowered so brilliantly as this year. Alas! it reminds me that I had bought it for her on her birthday. That birthday has since revolved. I softened the grief it revived, by prayers for the departed. But do not imagine that I would get rid of *this drop of wormwood*; for that could only be by forgetting her.'

King Louis was a good Latinist, and especially devoted to Horatian criticism. Perhaps no very high value usually attaches to French public

opinion; but we are, on the whole, inclined to think 'la grande nation' was in its sober senses, and for once inclined to be just, when it designated Louis XVIII., as it was fond of doing, 'Louis le desiré.'

BRITISH INDIA UNDER GEORGE III., CONCLUDED.—In our last notice of the Anglo-Indian empire, we stated that lord Cornwallis was appointed to succeed Warren Hastings, esq., as governor-general, 1786. His lordship prosecuted the war with Tippu Saheb, and, after defeating him in several battles, compelled him to sue for peace, 1792; which was granted on his payment of a large sum of money, ceding part of his territories, and giving up his two sons to the English as hostages. It was under the administration of lord Cornwallis that the principal judicial and revenue regulations, still in force, were enacted; particularly the perpetual settlement of the revenue of Bengal with the Zemindars. His lordship returned to England, 1793, and was succeeded by sir John Shore, whose pacific system of policy forfeited that consideration which the British government had held in his predecessor's time amongst the native states.

In 1798 sir John was succeeded by lord Mornington (afterwards marquis Wellesley), just at the moment when the sultan of Mysur was meditating fresh hostilities. Of a fierce and haughty disposition, Tippu naturally felt impatient at the humiliations he had endured; and this led to a revival of the war in 1799. The final and brief contest with the power bent on driving the British from Hindustan, terminated wholly in favour of the latter. Seringapatam, the capital of Mysur, was captured by lord Harris, 1799; and, in the defence of the place, Tippu lost his life. An immense booty fell into the hands of the English; among which was Tippu's library, containing many valuable works in Sanscrit, the Koran in all the languages of the East, a history of Tamerlane, and other MSS. of great rarity, which are

still in the possession of the East India Company. Mysur was now restored by the victors to a descendant of its ancient Hindu princes, but the conquests made by Hyder and Tippu were retained by them; and a subsidiary treaty having been formed with the nizam of the Dekhin, by which the defence of his dominions was undertaken by the English on his providing for the expense, the greater part of the Dekhin was, in a manner, subjected to their authority. The nawab of Oude, in order to have British protection, ceded, in the same way, part of the Doab, and other provinces, to the Company. The independent Mahratta chieftains, Siddhia and Bhosla, provoked at this extension of the European power, hereupon attacked the English both in the north and centre of Hindustan; but lord Lake defeated them in the former, and added the upper part of the Doab, with Delhi and Agra, to the British dominions, while general Wellesley, a younger brother of the governor-general (who had in 1798 commenced in India that career of military glory, which will render his subsequent title of 'Wellington' immortal), overcame them at Assaye, and annexed Cuttack and part of Guzerat, in the middle part of the peninsula, to the possessions of the Company, 1803. General Wellesley's first display of talent was at Malavelly, and then at Seringapatam, of which he had been made governor on the fall of Tippu.

A war with Holkar, another Mahratta prince, followed. He made a rapid incursion into the Doab, but was pursued by lord Lake to the Sikh country; and all his territories were occupied by a British force, though they were restored again at the ensuing peace. In 1805 lord Mornington (who had been created marquis Wellesley in 1799) was recalled, after a display of talent, which proved him eminently fitted to direct a great empire; and with him returned his brother, the victor of Assaye, who had seen his achieve-

ments honourably noticed by the erection of a splendid triumphal monument at Calcutta, and who was soon about to reap fresh laurels in the yet more glorious cause of Europe's freedom.

Lord (now marquís) Cornwallis was again appointed governor-general 1805; but, while following out the pacific plans of his predecessor (and that shortly after his arrival in India), he was seized with illness, and carried to the grave. Sir George Barlow, his temporary successor, adopted the same conciliatory course with the native states, but was superseded by the arrival of lord Minto as governor-general, 1807. Lord Minto's attention was chiefly directed to the subjugation of the remaining possessions of the French in the East; and the isles of France and Mauritius, and the large island of Java, were captured by armaments fitted out in India. In 1813 the earl of Moira arrived as governor-general; and, conceiving that the pacificatory plans of previous viceroys had generated in the minds of the semi-barbaric Hindu and Mohammedan rulers of Hindustan a degree of contempt for British prowess and authority, he instantly adopted a contrary policy. The conduct of the Gorkha government of Nepal having provoked hostilities, the Himalaya was traversed by the British armies, and an extensive tract of country permanently annexed to the state. The aggressions of the Pindáris, a set of freebooters secretly supported by the Mahratta princes, were next punished by the annihilation of their hordes. The Pindáris were at first bodies of mercenary horse, serving different princes for hire during war, and in time of peace subsisting upon plunder. Lands along the Nermadá had been assigned to some of their leaders by the princes of Malwa; and thence they frequently made incursions into the British provinces, devastating the country in the most ferocious manner, and disappearing before a competent body could be assembled against them. In the course of the

operations put in force to punish these marauders, Bajce Row, the usurping peishwa (prime minister) of the Mahratta king (the rajah of Sattarah), and the rajah of Nagpore, attempted, by treachery and murder, to rid themselves of British control, 1817; and hostilities ensued, which placed the territories and persons of both parties in the hands of their enemies, 1818. The British hereupon restored the rajah of Sattarah to his throne at Poonah, relying on his fidelity,—that prince having been deposed for his opposition to the Brahmíns, being of the Shudra, or lowest, caste of the Hindus, and much attached to the Christians. The army of Holkar also, which had aided the Pindáris, was defeated, and his country (under Holkar's son, another Holkar) again occupied by the British; and when peace followed, so much of Mahratta and other states fell to the Company, and so extensively was its protection solicited, that, in one way or other, all Hindustan, save the extreme west (yet under Hindu princes, who have ever been independent of the great Mongul's power), was brought under English authority, 1820. The earl of Moira was still the governor-general; and in that year king George III. died.

BAVARIA RAISED TO A KINGDOM.—The German duchy of Bavaria, the country of the Celtic Boii, was first importantly augmented by the accession of the elector palatine, Charles Theodore, 1777, who, by adding his patrimonial possessions (the palatinate, which was a considerable territory of Germany on the Rhine, and the duchies of Juliers and Berg), increased its superficial extent to 21,000 square miles, and its population to 2,500,000. The wars of Napoleon yet further enlarged the state; and the favour of that arbiter of nations exalted it to a kingdom, 1805. MAXIMILIAN JOSEPH, the elector, assuming the regal title, January 1st, 1806. He was a parental and enlightened monarch, a considerable

patron of learning and the fine arts, the inventor of lithography, and a warm admirer of the English. He died 1825, and was succeeded by the present king, his son, LEWIS I., whose second son, Otho, was advanced to the sovereignty of Greece, 1832. Munich (München), the capital of Bavaria, has been embellished by Maximilian and the present king with public buildings of great magnificence; and its splendid collection of works of ancient and modern art has rendered it, like Dresden, a welcome place of resort to travellers of taste. The population of Bavaria is now above 4,000,000. Bavaria and the other raised German duchies, were all first duly acknowledged, 1815, at the Vienna congress.

WURTEMBERG MADE A KINGDOM. —FREDERICK WILLIAM succeeded his father, Frederick Eugene, as duke of Wurtemberg, 1797, after having married, in 1780, Augusta, princess of Brunswick. As his father had been personally engaged in the Seven Years' War in the Prussian army, he was brought up a soldier; but possessing great natural abilities, he devoted all his leisure hours to polite learning, and became both an accomplished linguist and a very sound mathematician. Like his parent, he entered the Prussian service, together with his seven brothers; and after acting as governor-general of Russian Finland, was called on to oppose the entrance of the French into Franconia, 1796. He was foiled however in the attempt, and lived away from his father's court for a year, during which he took for his second consort, Charlotte, princess-royal of England, 1797. In that year he was called, by his father's death, to the ducal throne, which he maintained with some difficulty till 1803; when, by his interest at the court of Vienna, he obtained the electoral dignity from the German diet, and an ample indemnity for his loss to the French of the left bank of the Rhine. The chief objects of Frederick's policy being now to preserve and extend

his dominions, he reluctantly joined Napoleon, when he had declared war against Austria, 1805; and by steadily adhering to the system of *Buonaparte*, he acquired, after the peace of Presburg, the possession of an independent kingdom, of the extent of 370 square miles, with a population of 1,500,000. Being permitted by his French patron to assume the regal dignity, 1806, as Frederick I., he promulgated a plan for the government of both his old and newly-acquired provinces by the same laws, and somewhat despotically carried his point, in spite of the prejudices of his people. He of necessity joined the Rhenish confederation, was at the meeting of Napoleon and Alexander and the greatest princes of Germany at Erfurt, in October, 1808, and in the campaign of 1812 furnished his contingent, as the member of the confederation; but after the defeat of Napoleon at Leipsic, 1813, he, with his usual Machiavelian policy, renounced the league in question, and joined the allied powers against France. At the conclusion of the war, 1814, he went to the congress at Vienna, and was received with the greatest respect by the assembled sovereigns, who seem to have made due allowance for his vacillations; and after acceding to the Germanic confederation, 1815, he proposed (in conformity with a decree of the diet, founded on the English regent's suggestion, 'that each Germanic state should have a representative assembly, if possible') a new constitution to his states. The deputies, however, clamoured for the ancient one, and no other; and after a good deal of manœuvring, the king drew up his scheme in a new way, and had the satisfaction of finding his proposal accepted. While arrangements were making for establishing the plan, Frederick died, 1816, aged 61. He was succeeded by his son, WILLIAM I., the present king, who has followed up one excellent and most just practice of his father, that of encouraging German, in preference to French,

talent, everywhere throughout his state. The capital of Wurttemberg, Stuttgart, is an improving city, though ancient; and the old and celebrated fortress of Ulm is one of Wurttemberg's most interesting possessions.

SAXONY MADE A KINGDOM.—**FREDERICK AUGUSTUS** succeeded his father as elector of Saxony, 1750, under the tutelage of his uncle, prince Xavier, till he assumed the government in 1768. He began his reign with a firm resolution, to which he remained faithful under all circumstances and at all times, to do every thing in his power to promote the happiness of his people. In legislation, Frederick's government appears in a very favourable light. Torture was abolished in 1770; the number of oaths in courts of justice was diminished; the punishment of death restricted, and made less cruel. Important changes were also made with respect to several public boards; salutary police laws, and a general ordinance on guardianship were issued; orphan-houses, workhouses, dispensaries, &c. were founded; and at length integrity, order, temperance, and fidelity, so generally prevailed, that Saxony was eminently distinguished for the morality of its inhabitants. Notwithstanding his love of peace, Frederick was more than once obliged to take part in the wars of other powers. Thus, in 1778, the claims of his mother on the succession of her brother, the elector of Bavaria, made him join Frederick the Great against Austria. The welfare of his country, and its geographical position, required him to be united with Prussia; on which account he joined the Fürstenbund. Similar considerations induced him to refuse the crown of Poland, which the Poles offered to him and his successors, in 1791. He took no part in the war against France, further than furnishing his contingent as a prince of the empire; and in 1796 he acceded to the armistice and treaty of Neufchatel with France, and stationed a cordon

of troops on the line of demarcation on his southern frontier. He took no part in the new war between Austria and France in 1805; but when the German empire was dissolved on the 6th of August, 1806, he was obliged to furnish Prussia with 22,000 men against France. After the battle of Jena, Saxony was abandoned to the French. Napoleon, besides various requisitions, levied a contribution of 25,000,000 of francs, and established a provisional administration of the sequestered revenues, but allowed the country to remain neutral; and its fate would doubtless have been very different, but for the respect with which the private and public virtues of the king inspired even his enemies. Frederick assisted his distressed subjects from his private property, concluded a treaty of peace with Napoleon, at Bonn, in December, 1806, assumed the title of king, joined the Rhenish confederation, and furnished 20,000 men as his contingent. By the treaty of Tilsit, 1807, he obtained a large portion of Prussian Poland, by the name of the grand duchy of Warsaw. He was bound to take part with France in its wars, but sent no troops to Spain; and in the war with Austria, 1809, he furnished only his contingent. In 1813 his dominions became the theatre of war. On the entrance of the allies into Saxony, he retired to Plauen, thence to Ratisbon, and thence to Prague; but the menaces of Napoleon compelled him to return to Dresden; and he afterwards followed Napoleon to Leipsic. That town being taken by the allies, after the defeat of the French on Oct. the 18th and 19th, Alexander of Russia declared Frederick his prisoner; and he was deprived of a large portion of his kingdom, which was given to Prussia, under the title of the grand duchy of Saxony. On being allowed to return to Dresden, 1815, Frederick founded, in commemoration of the event, the order of Civil Merit, and devoted all his attention to repair the injuries caused by the war.

He celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of his accession, 1818, and of that of his marriage, 1819; and he died, highly respected for his paternal character, 1827, aged 76. Stripped of its territories as Saxony was by the Russians, 1814, it contains now barely 2,000,000 of inhabitants. Its capital, Dresden, is one of the finest cities of Germany, and celebrated for its splendid collection of paintings and statues, formed by the taste of its electors, who have ever been munificent patrons of the arts. The finest European porcelain is manufactured in Dresden; and Leipsic, also in Saxony, is the great book-mart of Germany, and celebrated for its annual fair to promote that trade. Frederick I. was succeeded by his brother, ANTONY I., an aged prince, who, in 1830, declared his nephew Frederick co-regent with himself; and upon the death of Antony, 1836, the latter succeeded to the throne as Frederick II. He is yet sovereign, and is son of duke Maximilian of Saxony, who had renounced the succession, 1830, in his favour. Saxony is divided into the two branches of Ernestine and Albertine: all the duchies of Saxony (Coburg-Gotha, Meiningen, Altenburg, and Weimar-Eisenach) are of the Ernestine, and protestant: the regal house of Saxony alone is Albertine, and catholic.

HANOVER MADE A KINGDOM.—The territory in Germany so called, was, in Charlemagne's time, in the power of the Saxons, and first took its present shape about 1090, but was then a portion of the duchy of Brunswick Lüneburg, by the gift of the emperor, Otho the Great, to Hermann Billung, lord of Lüneburg, 970. By the division of the Brunswick family; all the Lüneburg property now centres in the two remaining branches of Brunswick and Hanover, the former being the elder of the two. On the

general pacification of 1815, Hanover, which had been ruled by the British sovereigns from the time of George I., as an electorate, was raised to the dignity of a kingdom, under GEORGE III. On the decease of king WILLIAM IV. of England, 1837, Hanover, instead of remaining under the dominion of his successor, queen Victoria, passed, in consequence of the Salique law, to the next heir male, ERNEST AUGUSTUS I., duke of Cumberland; who instantly upon his accession abolished the existing constitution (framed originally 1819, and amended by king William IV.), and proposed a new one, which is scarcely yet settled. By that of 1819, a general assembly of the estates took place in one chamber; but the changes of 1838, under William IV., made the chambers two—the first consisting of members personally entitled to sit (as princes of the blood, nobles, or by virtue of their offices, such as the hereditary post-master-general, and the abbot of Loccum), and the deputies of the equestrian order; the second composed of deputies of the towns, of the representatives of certain religious foundations, and of the landowners and farmers. The deputies are elected for six years, and meet annually. Every Hanoverian, born during the rule over England from George I. to William IV. inclusive, has been allowed all the privileges in Great Britain of the Briton born; but all Hanoverian subjects born since the accession of king Ernest, are aliens in England. The mines of the Harz (the mystic land of Germany, pregnant with tales of the terrific order), and the salt-springs of Lüneburg, are situated in the kingdom of Hanover; Gottingen is its university; and its chief ports are Emden and Bremerlehe. The population is 3,500,000.

EMINENT PERSONS.

PIERRE, MARQUIS LAPLACE (1749—1827), one of the most distinguished philosophers since Newton's time, was born at Beaumont en Auge, and was appointed examiner of artillery at Paris, 1784. After the revolution

of the 18th Brumaire, 1799, he was made minister of the interior, but was removed in six weeks to make room for Lucien Buonaparte. He became president of the senate 1803, and in the following year made a report to that body of the necessity of abandoning the republican calendar, and restoring the Gregorian. On the removal of Napoleon to Elba, Laplace, who had voted for his deposition, was made a marquis by Louis XVIII.; and after displaying stanch Tory principles on several occasions, and rendering his residence at Arcueil the centre of attraction to all the mathematical philosophers of Europe, he died, aged 78, 1827.

The labours of Laplace have gained him an undying name. To him alone is due the glory of having perfected the work of Newton; and as that great philosopher projected the principle of gravitation, without fully seeing to what it was competent, Laplace proved at once the universality of its power. The law of gravitation is that which regulates all things in the universe, repairs or prevents the disturbances which time may occasion amongst the planetary orbs, and is competent to the preservation of variety and order, so long as its Almighty Originator shall choose it to operate. 'We cannot affirm of Laplace,' says professor Powell in his masterly but too concise view of the sciences, 'that he created a science entirely new, like Galileo or Archimedes; nor that he struck out original ideas, adding an entire calculus to mathematical methods, like Descartes, Newton, or Leibnitz. Nor again, that he was the first to transport himself into the heavens, like Newton, and carry the terrestrial dynamics of Galileo into the farthest regions of the planetary world; but he collected, combined, and arranged, all that had been previously known on these subjects, under the most grand and comprehensive generalizations: he traced out all the remotest consequences of the great principles already laid down, and brought under the dominion of

analysis an immense range of physical truths, which did not appear at all likely to be subjected to any such system. Such, however, was the powerful command with which he wielded at pleasure the irresistible weapons of the calculus, that he at one stroke subjugated the most apparently insuperable difficulties. We owe to him besides, almost the entire development of that highly curious and important subject, the calculation of *probabilities*; a doctrine which applies to that vast range of the objects of our knowledge, which are placed beyond the pale of absolute certainty. To supply fixed principles on which the probability of events may be estimated, and even expressed, by mathematical formula, is of all other inventions one of the most happy and important. It tends to put us in possession of the most sound principles on which to discriminate truth from error; it embraces as well the chances of future contingencies, as the probabilities of error in the present and the past, through the fallibility of observation and testimony; and it has been well designated by an able writer, 'a fortunate supplement to the imperfection of our nature.' The idea was first started by Pascal; it was successively improved upon by Bernoulli, Euler, and Lagrange; but it owes its full development entirely to Laplace.' The '*Mécanique Céleste*,' extending to five volumes, quarto, is the most important work of Laplace; containing all the recent discoveries in physical astronomy, united into a connected system with the fundamental truths established by Newton, and demonstrated by an uniform method of analysis. His theory of probabilities is contained in two separate works on the subject.

The full establishment of the law of gravitation wholly puts aside, amongst other equally unsupportable systems, the Atomic Theory of Democritus. It is the glory of physical science in our day to prove a God, beyond conception glorious and powerful, by his works; and Laplace,

whose claim to the title of philosopher none would dispute, humbly and truly observed when dying, 'that what we know of those works is little indeed, and what we are ignorant of, immense.'

WILLIAM WILBERFORCE (1759—1833), born at Hull, Yorkshire, was son of a merchant, and completed his education at St. John's, Cambridge, though the sentiments of his aunt had induced him to turn methodist. At the university he formed friendships with Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Isaac Milner, and made with them a tour to Nice. On his return, being then of age, he was chosen to represent his native town in parliament, 1780, and his first speech in the house was in support of Mr. Pitt; but in 1788, in conformity with the religious notions he had adopted, he took up the question of Negro Slavery; to to abolish which by legislative enactments, first in our own colonies, and then throughout the world, became henceforth the business of his life.

After many unsuccessful attempts to arrest the attention of the nation to his favourite theme, he, in May, 1804, moved that the house should go into committee upon the subject; but, although by a very eloquent speech he so far effected his object, it was too late in the session to have the matter discussed in the lords, and he never again took the lead in the question. In 1806 Mr. Fox made slave emancipation a ministerial measure, at Mr. Wilberforce's request; and the bill, after passing the lower house, was, through lord Grenville's efforts, triumphant also in the lords. So far, therefore, as legislative interference could effect, the slave trade was now prospectively at an end; and in the next year, when Mr. Wilberforce's return for the county of York was warmly contested, his friends raised the vast sum of 600,000*l.* by subscription in a few days, to pay his election expenses—though not a third of that amount was eventually needed. Mr. Wilberforce continued in parliament until 1825, when he

retired to private life; but he lived long enough to see his labours crowned by the commencing operation of those laws which he had so long and arduously toiled to obtain. His decease occurred at the age of 74, 1833.

SAMUEL ROMILLY (1757—1818), the son of a watchmaker in London, was wholly self-educated, and yet, at twenty (so much may be done by patient industry), was one of the six clerks in chancery. He afterwards entered at Gray's Inn, and was called to the bar; and he had not been twelve years there, before he found it necessary to abandon the circuit he had chosen, and confine himself wholly to Chancery business. So celebrated did he rapidly become as a Chancery lawyer, that the whig administration of Mr. Fox made him solicitor-general, 1806, and he obtained a nomination borough in parliament. Raised as he was by a specific party, it is but natural that he should in the main vote in the senate in its support; but we can see no reason, when conscience is at stake, why a man should vote any way but according to its dictates. Sir Samuel Romilly gave his assent to one or two gross breaches of constitutional principle perpetrated by his party, which he knew were so; such as, for instance, making the lord chief justice of England (Ellenborough) a member of the cabinet, and constituting an auditor of the exchequer (Grenville) first lord of the Treasury: thus putting the latter at the head of a board intended to contest and audit his own accounts. But to turn to the brighter side, there was a parliamentary labour of sir Samuel's which did him infinite credit; namely, his exertions to soften the English criminal code, which led to a condensation of the acts respecting crime, and some beneficial reforms. He put a period to his life during a nervous illness, in his 62*d* year, 1818. In religion, sir Samuel unhappily partook of the liberal, or rather sceptical notions, which too frequently characterize self-educated men.

SIR VICARY GIBBS (1752—1820) was born at Exeter, and, after an education at Eton and Cambridge, entered the law. He rose rapidly in his profession, through the countenance of Mr. Dunning (lord Ashburton), and ultimately became lord chief justice of the Common Pleas, 1814. His eloquent pleading in various important state-trials, especially in those of Horne Tooke, Thelwall, and Hardy, established his fame; and, good classical scholar that he was, his witticisms at the bar would fill a volume. On occasion of the O. P. disturbances, 1809, when he acted as counsel, his exclamation of '*Opes, irritamenta malorum!*' convulsed the court with laughter. On some one running breathless into his study, having escaped from a bull in a field, and expressing his terrible alarm, 'Pooh, pooh!' said sir Vicary, 'twas but a Bos: ellipse.' On seeing the motto of the Merchant Tailors' company, '*Concordiâ res parvæ crescunt*,' he observed, 'Ah! I see—nine tailors make a man.' [The origin of this proverb is little known. A poor youth, in 1742, applied for alms at a fashionable tailor's shop in London, wherein nine journeymen were employed, who gave a shilling each to the beggar, on hearing his piteous tale of being an orphan and without home. With this capital the boy purchased fruit, and retailed it at a profit; and from so small a beginning, he in time amassed property sufficient to keep a coach. On that coach he used for coat-armour nine lozenges, with the motto which gave birth to the proverb.] Sir Vicary Gibbs (whom a learned judge, in wishing to designate his skill when at the bar in taking either side of a question, used facetiously, by a sort of transposition of his name, to call 'Sir Gibbary Vicks') died sincerely lamented, aged 68, 1820.

JOHN PHILPOT CURRAN (1750—1817), born at Newmarket, near Cork, of humble parents, was nevertheless educated at Trinity college, Dublin; after which he repaired to

London, studied at one of the inns of court, and, by his forensic talents, gradually rose to a silk gown. In 1784, he was elected a member of the Irish commons; and from that period he became celebrated as the most popular advocate of his country—defending parties accused of political offences during the disturbed state of Ireland, 1790—1800, and once fighting a duel with Mr. Fitzgibbon, the attorney-general, his opponent. At length the duke of Bedford, when viceroy, advanced him to the mastership of the rolls, a post which he held till 1814; when he resigned, and retired with a pension of 3000*l.* a year to England, and died there, aged 67, 1817. As a forensic speaker, Curran's eloquence, combined as it was with wit and drollery, was irresistible; and his occasional daring style of oratory very singularly contrasted with his extremely undignified person. That, accompanied as it was with mean apparel, often occasioned him to be taken for a man of the lowest grade. He would, however, glory in the contumely with which he was visited; and on one occasion, when taken for the 'boots' of an inn, he brushed a traveller's coat, as he was authoritatively bid by the owner, and then travelled inside the coach with him, enjoying the man's amazement when he saw him saluted with awe at a town, whereat the vehicle stopped, by a whole municipal body, that was waiting his arrival to open the sessions.

VICISSIMUS KNOX (1752—1821), born in London, was educated at Merchant Tailors' school and St. John's college, Oxford. On the death of his father, he was chosen his successor in the head mastership of Tunbridge grammar-school; over which he presided thirty-three years, till, retiring in 1812, he was himself in turn succeeded by his son. His leisure hours being devoted to literature, he gave to the world his '*Moral Essays*,' '*Elegant Extracts*,' '*Christian Philosophy*,' and '*Essay on Education*.' The last-named pro-

duction labours both to lay down a sound principle of liberal education, and to conflict with that erroneous judgment of parents concerning the conduct of schoolmasters, which has, on the one hand, destroyed the peace of many a worthy man engaged in the instruction of youth, and, on the other, paved the way to the ruin of many a hopeful child. Dr. Knox died, aged 69, 1821. The doctor was a very elegant Latin writer; and his English style has a dignity in it, which, with the absence of all turgid effort, necessarily excites the admiration of the scholar.

EDWARD CLARKE (1767—1821), son of a divine, became a fellow of Jesus college, Cambridge; and, after a visit to Italy, set out, 1799, on an inquiring tour through Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Finland, Russia, Tartary, Circassia, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Greece, and Turkey; returning, in 1802, through Germany and France. In return for his liberal contributions of ancient manuscripts and marble fragments to his university, he obtained the honorary degree of LL.D.; and a chair being instituted for encouraging the study of mineralogy, he was the first promoted thereto, 1808. His 'Travels,' and other works form a little library, the publication of which he superintended with great care; and he died, aged 54, 1821.

OLINTHUS GREGORY (1774—1841), born at Yaxley, Huntingdonshire, had no regular education; but his taste for mathematical studies was fostered by the earl of Carysfort, and Dr. Hutton, who had seen his manuscript treatise on 'The Sliding Rule,' when offered for sale to some booksellers. After setting up a bookseller's shop at Cambridge, he became a teacher of mathematics, and, through Dr. Hutton's interest, master in those sciences at the Military Academy, Woolwich. There he at length became professor, and presided in that capacity, with great credit, many years, until his retirement in 1838. On the publication respectively of

his 'Mechanics' and 'Pantologia,' the Marischal college, Aberdeen, awarded him the degrees of M.A. and LL.D.; and latterly he had the superintendence of all the almanacs published by the Stationers' company. He died, aged 67, 1841.

AUGUSTUS VON KOTZEBUE, a German poet, passed his life in diplomatic matters, or as manager of some great continental theatre, holding posts in Prussia, Austria, and Russia. Paul I., suspecting him of seditious practices, banished him to Siberia; but his successor, Alexander, made him his resident in Germany, with a large salary, and a commission to state to him, from time to time, his opinion of the public mind. The students of the German universities taking umbrage at his spy-like office, one of them, named Sandt, went to Mannheim, where Kotzebue lived, and mortally wounded him with a poniard, 1819. The poet was in his 59th year; and his assassin was deservedly made to pay the penalty of the law by an ignominious death. The play of 'The Stranger' is a translation from Kotzebue.

SAMUEL PARR, eminent as a critic and Greek scholar, was son of an apothecary at Harrow, and educated there and at Emmanuel college, Cambridge. Failing in his attempt to succeed Dr. Sumner as head master of Harrow school, he opened a rival house at Stanmore, and ran away with forty-five of the Harrow pupils. The undertaking, however, did not flourish; and he was happy in obtaining the perpetual curacy of Hatton, Warwickshire, where he resided the remainder of his days, though sir Francis Burdett gave him, in addition, the living of Graffham, and bishop Lowth a stall. From this period Dr. Parr, even in his sermons, entered into the political agitations of the day, siding with the whigs, who gave him 300*l.* a year in an annuity from their club. He died, aged 78, 1825. All the works of Dr. Parr, beyond sermons, are in the form of notes to other authors.

He was an irritable and somewhat overbearing man, and especially so in general society. A lady still living remembers his strange conduct at a mixed dinner-party; on which occasion he emptied the whole tureen of lobster-sauce upon his own plate, exclaiming bluntly enough, 'I like lobster-sauce.' In like manner, when the cloth had been removed, he rose, and without asking permission of some ladies sitting near a window, threw it open, saying, 'I like air.' He was, in a word, a rude and somewhat selfish person, caring little for the opinion of those about him: yet would he on occasion be facetious, and many of his witty sayings are on record.* For instance,—on reaching a book one day from a high shelf in his library, two others came tumbling down; of which one, the critical work of Lambert Bos, fell upon the other, a volume of Hume. 'See,' said he, 'what has happened—*procumbit humi bos!*' When asked to subscribe to Busby's translation of 'Lucretius,' he called it '*Lucretius curus,*'—too dear; and when some one left the door of his chamber open, so as to expose him to a strong current of air (he having then a bad cold), he exclaimed 'Shut the door, that is too much—I am only *par levibus ventis.*'

CYRIL JACKSON (1746—1819), born at Stamford, Lincolnshire, was educated at Westminster school and Christ-church, Oxford, where he graduated D.D. 1781. He was sometime sub-preceptor to the prince of Wales (Geo. IV.), and for his services in that capacity was made canon of Christ-church, and dean. Dr. Jackson would never print any thing, and is chiefly remarkable for having declined both the Irish primacy and an equally good English bishopric. When, in like manner, Dr. Nathan Wetherell, master of University college, and dean of Hereford, who had embarked much money in shares of the Oxford canal, had refused further advancement, the following *jeu d'esprit* ran the round

at Oxford, commemorative of such unusual modesty:

Says Cyril to Nathan, in passing by Queen's,
'Dear Nathan, d'ye see, we are both of us
deans,

And both of us bishops may be:'
Says Nathan to Cyril, 'So, Cyril, you shall;
But I'll be content with my little canal,
While you may look after the see.'

Dr. Jackson died, highly respected, aged 73, 1819. His brother, *William Jackson*, (1750—1815,) was an able divine, and was made bishop of Oxford, 1811.

THE BURNEYS.—This talented family was founded by Dr. *Charles Burney* (1726—1814), born at Shrewsbury, who devoted himself to music, and produced the only complete history of that science extant. He had eight children, many of whom have been very distinguished in various ways. His eldest son, *James*, entered early into companioned captain Cook in his second and third voyages round the world; he afterwards commanded the Bristol, fifty-gun ship, on the East India station, where he for some time acted as commodore; and having attained the rank of rear-admiral, died 1821, aged 70. He was author of '*Voyages of Discovery in the Southern Ocean.*' His second son, *Charles*, after long being at the head of a successful school at Greenwich, took holy orders, had the degree of D.D. conferred on him by royal mandate, for his able Greek criticisms, and died rector of St. Paul's, Deptford. His library was purchased by the nation for 14,000*l.*, and placed in the British Museum; and his school was continued by his talented son, *Charles Parr Burney*, D.D., the godson of Dr. Parr. His second daughter, *Frances*, married general Pichard, comte D'Arblay, and was well known as author of a series of novels, '*Evelina,*' '*Cecilia,*' &c. They formed a new era in that species of composition; and though the manners portrayed in them are now nearly obsolete, the vivacity of style, and variety and discrimination of character are such, that they are still read with

delight and improvement. Shortly after the publication of her 'Cecilia,' the authoress was spontaneously offered by queen Charlotte a situation of confidence about her majesty's person; and this post, which she retained six years, brought her into daily intercourse with every individual forming the court of George III. During the period in question, Miss Burney never omitted, before retiring to rest, to record in a journal the events and conversations of the past day; and her diary has been recently published by her niece. We cannot, however, but consider this posthumous publication as a blot upon the fame of the fair authoress. No one has a right to sit in private society, and record for publication, the sayings and doings which occur in their presence—unless indeed the party assembled with the understanding that some chronicler, 'faithful as was Griffith,' was to witness and hereafter promulgate all that might pass. We think, too, the portion devoted to the private affairs of the royal family, a perfectly ungrateful breach of trust; and the fair publisher should have recollected there are still members of king George III.'s family living, whose feelings must be most unjustly and needlessly shocked and pained, if her work should meet their eye. Madame D'Arblay died, aged 87, 1840. Dr. Burney himself closed his life, 1814, aged 88. His 'History of Music,' which has fully established his fame, obtained him the post of organist to Chelsea college, and a pension of 300*l.* from the crown.

HERBERT MARSH (1756—1839) was educated at St. John's, Cambridge, and soon after his election to a fellowship of that college, went to Germany, where he devoted himself to theological studies, and became known to the public as the translator and learned commentator of 'Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament.' His 'History of the Politics of Great Britain and France, from the time of the con-

ference at Pilnitz to the Declaration of War,' occasioned Mr. Pitt to obtain him a handsome pension; in 1807 he was elected Lady Margaret's professor of divinity at Cambridge; and in 1816 he was made bishop of Llandaff, whence he was translated to Peterborough. Bishop Marsh was the sensible opponent of the 'Bible Society,' on its first establishment in the unchristian spirit of an attempt to rival the venerable Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. His 'Comparative View of the Churches of England and Rome,' presents a masterly exposition of the great principles which distinguish those branches of the church catholic. He died, aged 83, 1839.

ENNIUS VISCONTI, son of John Visconti, (a celebrated Italian antiquary under Clement XIV. and Pius VI., who superintended the researches for ancient monuments, in order to fill the new museum in the Vatican, when the tomb of the Scipios was brought to light,) was born at Rome, 1751. He is perhaps the most extraordinary example of precocious intellect on record; being able to read Greek and Latin, in addition to his own language, before he was four years old, as was shown at a public examination. What is equally surprising, his progress in general learning was rapid through all the usual period of pupillage; but, although expecting a cardinal's hat, he preferred the law, and eventually quitted that profession to aid his father in the publication of the 'Museum Pio-Clementinum.' When the French took possession of Rome, 1797, Ennius was made minister of the interior in the provisional government. He eventually settled at Paris, and was appointed surveyor of the museum of antiquities, dying there, aged 67, 1818. His most interesting work is on the sculptures of ancient Athens.

LINDLEY MURRAY (1745—1826), born in Pennsylvania, North America, was the son of a quaker flour-factor of New York, and became a member of the American bar. The

war with the mother-country, however, made law a barren pursuit ; and young Murray turned general merchant, and at length amassed a very pretty fortune. His health, however, was much shattered ; and being recommended to try the air of Yorkshire, in England, for a grievous nervous affection which beset him, he bought a small estate at Holdgate, near York, and there passed the rest of his life. As he was a complete valetudinarian, and could rarely bear even the jolting of a carriage, he devoted his hours to books, and compiled an 'English Grammar,' which, (to the shame of the learned in England be it spoken,) with all its Americanisms, and inelegancies, and inaccuracies, at length came to be regarded as the grammar of the English people. We can contemplate scarcely any thing more like a biting satire upon our nation, than that an American quaker, with no regular classical education, should come among us, and teach us our own mother-tongue, and actually at last be regarded as the great '*magister ipse*' in all questions relative to the metaphysical subtleties of grammar—*English grammar*. This is truly, in the best sense, a *soloikismos*, as every Greek scholar will admit—a *real solecism*, every accomplished Englishman must allow.


JOHN KEATS, grandson of a London stable-keeper, quitted surgery for the profession of a poet, and, under the patronage of Mr. Leigh Hunt, published, after some juvenile productions, 'Endymion,' a poem, which was severely criticised by the 'Quarterly Review.' It has been alleged that the sensitive author took the attack to heart, and died ; but it would seem that he wasted away with an hereditary consumption, and expired at Rome, aged 25, 1821. There can be no doubt of the active imagination of Keats : it was both potent and unshackled ; and he has rarely written two lines without a start into wildness, which, although it occasionally pleases, most com-

monly disappoints, and puts at fault the reader. His most intelligible remark was oral, highly poetical, and touching, though something ethnic, considering the circumstances under which it was uttered. Being asked on his deathbed how he did ? he replied, in a low voice, 'Better, my friend : I feel the daisies growing over me.'

JOHN SOANE (1753—1837) was son of a common bricklayer, and born at Reading. While errand-boy in the service of Mr. Dance, the architect, he displayed so much natural taste for design, that sir William Chambers, on seeing his model of a bridge, sent him to Italy for three years, as travelling student of the Royal Academy, 1777—1780. He was made architect of the Bank of England soon after his return, built several private residences in the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, which display nothing particularly classical or tasteful in invention, and married the niece of Mr. Wyatt, the builder, with a considerable fortune. As clerk of the works to St. James's palace, he was introduced to a very large circle of employers ; and he now devoted a large portion of his accumulations to form his private residence in Lincoln's-inn-fields, London, into a museum of art, which he, in 1833, vested, by an act of parliament, in trustees, for the use of the public after his death. He refused a baronetcy, on account of not wishing (it was said) to leave a title to his son, with whom he had long been at variance, but was knighted ; and he died, aged 84, 1837. As an architect, Sir John Soane was the first to apply what is called the Tivoli Corinthian style in this country, a beautiful specimen of which is to be seen in his north-west corner of the bank of England. He was also skilful in the planning of interior lights for houses, such as skylights ; but for Gothic he had no talent, nor was he at all anxious to preserve the purity of any order in his buildings, when such a course militated against his notion of effect.

The public is admitted to 'the Soanean Museum' twice a week, by tickets, during three months only in the year.

ANNE RADCLIFFE (1764—1823), daughter of a Mr. Ward, who was related to the family of bishop Jebb, was born in London, and became at twenty-three the wife of Mr. Radcliffe, a student-at-law. Her husband having abandoned his profession to become editor of a newspaper, she essayed her powers as a novel-writer; and the 'Castles of Athlin and Dunblaine' was succeeded, among other productions of her pen, by the 'Mysteries of Udolpho,' which, from its display of her power in delineating the effects of the passion of fear in all its gradations, has placed her in the first rank of imaginative writers. She died, aged 59, 1823. Mrs. Radcliffe was as truly a great and original writer in the department she had struck out for herself, as the Richardsons, Fieldings, and Smolletts, whom she succeeded, and for a time threw into the shade, or as the Ariosto of the North, before whom her own star at last paled its ineffectual fires. The passion of fear, the latent sense of supernatural awe and curiosity concerning whatever is hidden and mysterious, were themes and sources of interest which, prior to the appearance of her tales, could scarcely be said to be touched on. The 'Castle of Otranto' was too obviously a mere caprice of imagination; its gigantic helmets, its pictures descending from their frames, its spectral figures dilating themselves in the moonlight to the height of the castle battlements, if they do not border on the ludicrous, no more impress the mind with a feeling of awe than the enchantments and talismans, the genii and peris of the 'Arabian Nights.' A nearer approach to the proper tone of feeling was made in the 'Old English Baron;' but while it must be admitted that Mrs. Radcliffe's principle of composition was, to a certain degree, anticipated in that clever production, nothing can

illustrate more strongly the superiority of her powers, the more poetical character of her mind, than a comparison of the  in which, in these different works, the principle is wrought out. Certainly never, before Mrs. Radcliffe or since, did any one more accurately perceive the point to which imagination might be wrought up by a series of hints, glimpses, or half-heard sounds, consistently at the same time with pleasurable emotion, and with the continuance of that very state of curiosity and awe which had been thus created. The clang of a distant door, a footfall on the stair, a half-effaced stain of blood, a strain of music floating over a wood or round some decaying chateau—nay, a very rat behind the arras, become, in her hands, invested with a mysterious dignity; so finely has the mind been attuned to sympathize with the terrors of the sufferer, by a train of minute details and artful contrasts, in which all sights and sounds combine to awaken and render the feeling more intense. Yet her art is even more visible in what she conceals than in what she displays; for to have let in any further the garish light of day upon her mysteries, would have shown at once the hollowness and meanness of the puppet which alarmed us, and have broken the spell beyond the power of reclasping it. Hence, up to the moment when she chooses to do so herself by those fatal explanations for which no reader will ever forgive her, she never loses her hold on the mind; and the very economy with which she avails herself of the talisman of terror, preserves its power, not only undiminished, but augmented to the last.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY (1792—1822), son of sir Timothy Shelley, bart., was born at Field-place, Sussex, and after being some time at Eton school, was sent to Christchurch, Oxford. While at the university, he displayed an extremely restless disposition, and was wholly opposed to every thing like order,

from the unprincipled notion that restraints, however needful, are a species of slavery; and at length venturing to write to the effect that atheism was a necessary belief, he was expelled. The anger and estrangement of his family and friends consequent on this disgrace, was regarded by the foolish young man as an honourable martyrdom; and he soon made matters worse, by marrying a person much beneath him in station, from whom he, of course, after the birth of one or two children, separated. On the decease of his wife, he married Miss Godwin, daughter of the author of 'Political Justice,' by his wife Mary Wolstonecraft (known for her profession of a creed not unlike Mr. Shelley's, namely, that the bonds of wedlock are intolerable fetters); and on having his children by his first wife taken from him by legal means, on the ground of his avowed atheistical and anti-social sentiments, he repaired with his second wife, and a new family, to Italy, where he renewed his acquaintance with lord Byron, then also an exile on a similar ground. In conjunction with that reckless nobleman and Mr. Leigh Hunt, of freethinking notoriety, he began 'The Liberal,' a periodical paper, sent for publication to England; but which, through the change of mind of lord Byron, and the death of Shelley, happily went not beyond the fourth number. Mr. Shelley, on returning from Leghorn to his house on the gulf of Lerici, in the bay of Spezia, was drowned by the upsetting of his own sailing-boat, during a sudden and violent storm, 1822, aged 30; and his body, being afterwards picked up by his noble and equally eccentric friend, was burned by him, after the custom of the ancients, on the sea-shore. The 'Revolt of Islam,' and other productions by Shelley, prove him to have been a man of high genius, and to have been gifted with all the imagination a poet could desire. He is indeed often, like Coleridge, obscure, from a tendency to indulge in metaphysical

speculations, and from his liability to be rapt and carried away by his subject; a fault we could forgive, did he not throw out by the way a great deal of miserable sophistry on religious and moral points, calculated to lead the youthful reader astray. Had his ethic notions been as high-flown and unintelligible as some of the soarings of his muse, it would have been well; but as it is, there is no small danger to the reader who searches for his roses; and he must see that the blood in his veins be in a state of purity, lest he get festers, not easily curable, from the thorns he must in plucking encounter.

It is very clear that Shelley, with all his advantages, was a self-taught man; for he left Eton much before his time to go to Oxford, out of his sheer propensity (as he boasted) to scorn rule; and at Oxford he certainly did nothing. First principles being commonly wholly wanting in men so self-guided, their earliest stumbling-block is religion. Religion is a thing of restraint to the mere natural man, fallen as he is, and wholly grates against his corrupt feelings and affections. It is, therefore, a species of knowledge and learning, which must be duly enforced upon us by the external authority of others. Unless the parent make the first tracings, and unless the school and college deepen them into strength, it will be in vain to expect that the mature man will possess any adequate knowledge of religious or moral duty. In our regular schools and colleges, religious education (at least as much of it as consists in the daily recognition of religious truth, and the higher doctrines of Christianity) makes a part of the established system of instruction, and of practice,—for church and chapel attendance are daily required of their members by our national universities; and they must be entirely ignorant of the constitution of human nature, and of the powerful, though insensible effect of external habits, long continued, upon the mind of youth,

who can deny the certain operation of this steady and regular routine in moulding (with God's blessing and grace) the heart of the future man. In self-education all instruction of this sort is wanting; and every one's experience will afford him examples of men so taught becoming all that Shelley was.

STEPHANIE, COUNTESS DE GENLIS (1746—1830), born at Antrim of respectable parents, attracted the attention of the count de Genlis, by her talents as a writer, and her musical taste. The count married her; but having subsequently introduced her to the duke of Orleans (*Egalité*), the latter intrusted her with the early education of his children, and at the same time made her his mistress. When the French revolution broke out, Madame de Genlis, who had been one of its partisans, sought safety in flight; but she was everywhere suspected as a spy, and especially in England, where she was known to correspond with lord Edward Fitzgerald, who had married Pamela, her daughter by the duke of Orleans. On the accession of Buonaparte, she became one of his warmest admirers, while he, on the other hand, afforded her his patronage; in the same way she eulogized the Restoration, Louis XVIII., and religion itself. Soon after seeing her pupil, Louis Philippe, raised to the throne of France, she died aged 84, 1830. The talents of this lady were varied and great; but all her works, moral and immoral, will be soon forgotten, save perhaps her '*Diners du Baron d'Holbach*,' in which she attacks the freethinking philosophers of France with no small ability.

SIR WILLIAM BEECHY (1753—1839) was born at Burford, Oxon, and becoming a student of the Royal Academy, 1772, gradually rose to eminence as a portrait-painter. A whole-length of queen Charlotte obtained him the honorary post of royal painter; and a large equestrian statue of George III., with the prince of Wales and duke of York, his sons,

reviewing the 3d and 10th dragoons, attended by his staff, which is regarded as sir William's *chef d'œuvre*, established his fame, 1798. The king knighted him; and he was then employed to paint a suite of whole-length portraits of all the members of the royal family, for the Gothic palace erecting at Kew. In fine, the greater portion of persons of rank, importance, and fashion, sat to sir William, forming a considerable amount of pictures, which will ever be admired for the accuracy of the likeness, the ease and general management, and the admirable tone of colour. Sir William was a cheerful companion, and a most worthy man; and so blest was he with health and strength, that he continued to paint until within a few weeks of his decease, 1839, at the advanced age of 86.

JOHN JULIUS ANGERSTEIN (1731—1822), a distinguished patron of the fine arts in England, was born at Petersburg, and came to this country under the patronage of the late Andrew Thompson, esq.; with whom he continued in partnership, as a Russia merchant, upwards of fifty years. Mr. Angerstein exhibited much public spirit on several occasions; and was the first who proposed a reward of 2000*l.* from the fund at Lloyds' to the inventor of life-boats. His celebrated collection of oil-paintings, esteemed inferior to none of the same extent in Europe, has been purchased since his death by the English government for 60,000*l.* as the nucleus of a national gallery. He died at Blackheath, aged 91, 1822.

LUDWIG VON BEETHOVEN, born at Bonn, was instructed in music by his father, who was tenor singer in the elector's chapel at Cologne. In 1792 he was sent at the expense of the elector of Cologne to Vienna, to study under Haydn; and the wars of the French revolution and the death of his royal patron induced him to settle there. His oratorio of the '*Mount of Olives*,' overture

to 'Prometheus,' and piano-forte concerts in 'C minor,' are considered to display best his originality of invention, energy of manner, and power of modulation. This great composer died, almost in poverty, aged 57, 1827.

THOMAS LORD ERSKINE (1750—1823), third son of David, earl of Buchan, went at first to sea, next entered the army, and at twenty-six became a barrister. He displayed such tact in the management of captain Baillier's case, who had been removed by lord Sandwich from Greenwich hospital, 1778, that, on leaving the court, he received thirty retainers from attorneys, and from that moment began to rise. For twenty-five years, he was engaged in almost every cause of importance, but especially on the defensive side in political prosecutions. He was attorney-general to the prince of Wales; and in the brief administration of lord Grenville, 1806, lord chancellor. His last days were passed in straitened circumstances; and there were many points in his conduct at this period, over which the veil of charity must be drawn. He died, 1823, aged 73. Lord Erskine's talent lay in the power of commanding at the instant all the resources of his mind, and in applying them with extraordinary dexterity; and preferring, as he did, to give his aid to political delinquents, he is allowed to have established, in that unenviable labour, some important controverted constitutional doctrines. There is a pleasing anecdote told, connected with Erskine's first speech at the bar. So oppressed was he by nervous agitation before he began, that it crossed his mind he was unfit for the profession he had undertaken, and he even entertained thoughts of retiring unheard. At the moment, however, of turning to quit the court, his gown was arrested by a projecting nail; and the accident giving him time to reflect, he indulged the inspiring notion, that not a nail, but one of his infant children, had seized his garment, with a view of urging him to proceed, for the

sake of those dearer to him than himself.

HENRY MACKENZIE, a Scottish advocate, and the last of the old class of novelists, was author of 'The Man of Feeling,' and other works of the sentimental kind, wholly free from the exaggeration and corrupt tendency of the impulsive school. He died, aged 85, 1831.

JOHN PHILIP KEMBLE (1757—1823), the most accomplished English tragedian since Garrick, was educated amongst Roman catholics in France; and after going the round of the provincial stages in England, appeared on the Drury-lane boards, 1783, as 'Hamlet.' From 1788 to 1801 he was the leader in tragedy at this theatre, having at length a share in the management; but in 1803 he transferred his interest to Covent-garden, and became its sole manager. That house was destroyed by fire, and the price of admission being raised on the opening of the new one (erected in one year, 1809), the O. P. (*Old Price*) riot commenced, which terminated in some respects in favour of the public. This celebrated contest was of a peculiarly *civil* nature. Visitors to the theatre paid their money at the doors, and having entered the house, commenced a series of performances, which rendered the efforts of the scenic actors nugatory. The entertainments consisted for a while of dances on the pit-benches, and sometimes on the cushions of the boxes, to the harsh sounds of catcalls; even regular music was sometimes written for the occasion, and sung by the crowd; and O. P. dances and songs were to be seen in the windows of every music-shop. At last, when benches began to be torn up, box-covers and cushions to be demolished, and the decorations of the theatre to be destroyed, the magistracy interfered. Mr. Kemble took his leave of the stage, 1817, and retired to Lausanne, where he died, aged 66, 1823. The learning, manners, and uprightness of this actor, gave a dignity to his profession; and

in his representations of the Roman character, he was perhaps superior to Garrick, having a general carriage especially suited to our notions of the stately heroes of the capitol. His sister, Mrs. Siddons, was perhaps the greatest tragic actress this country has produced: her 'Lady Macbeth,' 'Katherine,' 'Constance,' and 'Mrs. Beverley,' were alike admirable for their truth to nature. Her dignity, her energetic, yet chastened action in scenes of high excitement, and the amazing power she possessed over her voice, impelled as it was in an instant, without apparent effort, from a tone of eminent sweetness and despondency to that of majestic authority, or shaped to suit the fiercest denunciations of vengeance,—added to her power of expressing the feelings of the anxious parent, the injured wife, or the proud and desolated queen,—have identified her with the characters she personated; and those who remember her, think not of Katherine, or of Constance, of Mrs. Beverley, or of lady Macbeth, but as combined with the form and demeanour of the illustrious Siddons.

FRANÇOIS TALMA (1770—1826), the greatest tragedian of France, and who has been styled the French Roscius, was born at Paris, but educated in Lambeth, near London, where his father had entered into business as a silversmith. Although intended to be a surgeon, the young Talma displayed such a taste for histrionic subjects, and made such a figure among the amateur French company of comedians then using the Hanover-square rooms, that his parent was persuaded to let him try the stage as a profession. Kemble and Mrs. Siddons were at this period in the zenith of their reputation; and the former had just succeeded in reforming the absurdities of theatrical costume, which had hitherto disgraced the drama. The performance of these two eminent professors decided Talma's vocation, as well as formed his taste: he returned to Paris, and, through the interest of Molé, the actor, obtained

an engagement. His debut upon the boards of the Théâtre Français was made in the part of 'Seide,' in Voltaire's tragedy of 'Mahomet;' but it created no particular sensation in the minds of the audience, which had yet to discover that a new light had risen upon their drama. After performing a variety of insignificant characters, accident lifted Talma at once to the summit of his profession. Chenier's tragedy of 'Charles IX.' was accepted, and put in rehearsal, when Saint-fal, the principal actor, returned his part, with a sneering recommendation to the author, to 'give it to young Talma.' Chenier took him at his word; Talma accepted the part with delight, and feeling that his future fame and fortune depended on that night's success, not only devoted all his energies to the study of it, but directed his attention in so especial a manner to give it effect by strict fidelity of costume, that the audience, equally delighted and surprised, bestowed upon him, throughout the representation, the most tumultuous approbation. Thus the tragedy was completely successful, and the fame of the actor established. His greatest triumph, however, was yet to follow. Ducis had translated the Othello of Shakspeare; but not daring to offend so far against French prejudices as to exhibit the murder of Desdemona on the stage, he had furnished a new catastrophe, of a more fortunate description. Talma alone was bold enough to prefer the original termination; and, after considerable hesitation, resolved, with the consent of the author, to risk the attempt. His success astonished even himself, and most honourably rewarded his intrepidity. From this moment he became the paramount tragedian of France; and he continued at the summit of his profession, wherein he amassed a large fortune, until his death, at the age of 56, 1826. By his will, Talma was buried in the cemetery of Père-la-Chaise, without the rites of religion, notwithstanding the archbishop of Paris

had offered the performance of a ceremonial, which, in the more religious days of France, had been denied to stage-players, whose profession stood excommunicate by sundry papal bulls; and it is too much to be feared that the great actor had voluntarily spurned those alone consolations which are to be found in Christian arrangements for the last bed, since he died ejaculating the name of—Voltaire.

SOVEREIGNS. (1789 to 1820.)

—**TURKEY.**—1789, Selim III.; 1807, Mustafa IV.; 1808, Mahmud II. **POPPES.**—1775, Pius VI.; 1800, Pius VI. **FRANCE.**—1774, Louis XVI.; 1793, Louis XVII., then Republic; 1799, Napoleon, Consul; 1804, Napoleon, Emperor; 1814, Louis XVIII.; 1815, Napoleon restored, then Louis XVIII. restored. **RUSSIA.**—1762, Catherine II.; 1795, Paul I.; 1801, Alexander. **SWEDEN.**—1771, Gustavus III.; 1792, Gustavus IV.; 1809, Charles XIII.; 1818, Charles XIV. **PORTUGAL.**—1789, Dom John regent; 1816, John VI. **SPAIN.**—1788, Charles IV.; 1808, Ferdinand VII. **GERMANY.**—1765, Joseph II.; 1790, Leopold II.; 1792, Francis II., who assumed the title of emperor of Austria, 1804. **PRUSSIA.**—1786, Frederick William II.; 1797, Frederick William III. **DENMARK AND NORWAY.**—1766, Christian VII.; 1784, Frederick, prince royal, regent; 1808, Frederick VI. **NETHERLANDS.**—1766, William V.;

1795, the French, then the Batavian Republic; 1806, Louis Buonaparte, king of Holland; 1810, united to France; 1813, Frederick William (son of the stadtholder, William V.), who was declared king of both Dutch and Austrian Netherlands, 1815, as William I. **TWO SICILIES.**—1759, Ferdinand IV.; Naples under Joseph Buonaparte from 1805 to 1808, when Murat became king, as Joachim I.; 1815, Ferdinand IV. restored. Sicily under English protection from 1806 to 1811; and reunited to Naples under Ferdinand IV., 1815, who took the title of Ferdinand I. of the Two Sicilies. **SARDINIA.**—1773, Charles Emanuel IV.; 1802, Victor Emmanuel I. **PERSIA.**—1789, Luft Ali Khan; 1795, Aga Mohammed; 1796, Futtch Ali Khan. **KAUBUL.** 1773, Timur Khan; 1793, Shah Zemaun; 1800, Mahmud; 1803, Shù-jah-ol-Mulk; 1809, Mahmud restored; 1818, Ayub. **SIKHS.**—1798, Runjeet Singh. **DELHI.**—1761, Shah Alem; 1806, Akber II. **CHINA.**—1735, Kien Lung; 1795, Kia-king. **BAVARIA.**—1806, Maximilian I., created by Napoleon, and acknowledged by the allied sovereigns in congress at Vienna, 1815. **WURTEMBERG.**—1806, Frederick I., created by Napoleon, and acknowledged, 1815; 1816, William I. **SAXONY.**—1806, Frederick I., created by Napoleon, and acknowledged, 1815. **HANOVER** (properly Hannover).—1815, Ernest Augustus I.

REIGN CLXXIV.

GEORGE IV., KING OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

1820 TO 1830—10 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—George IV. was the eldest son and child of George III., and was born at St. James's, London, August 12, 1762. His principal tutors were archbishop Markham and Dr. Cyril Jackson; and Dr. Croly has given us a sketch of his early education. The family discipline, as regarded the princes, was almost that of a public school. Their majesties generally rose at six, breakfasted at eight with the two elder princes (the prince of Wales and duke of York), and then summoned the younger children: the several teachers next appeared, and the time till dinner was spent in diligent application to languages and the severer kinds of literature, varied

by lessons in music, drawing, and the other accomplishments. The king was frequently present : the queen superintended the younger children, like an English mother. The two elder princes laboured at Greek and Latin with their tutors, and were by no means spared in consequence of their rank. 'How would your majesty wish to have the princes treated?' was Markham's inquiry of the king. 'Like the sons of any private English gentleman,' was the manly and sensible answer; 'if they deserve it, let them be flogged: do as you used to do at Westminster.' Louis XIV., when, in his intercourse with the accomplished society of France, he felt his own deficiencies, often upbraided the foolish indulgence which had left his youth without discipline; and he would passionately exclaim, 'Was there not birch enough in the forest of Fontainebleau, when I was a boy?' George III. was determined that no reproach of this nature should rest upon his memory; and probably no private family in the empire were educated with more diligence in study, more attention to religious observances, or more rational respect for their duties to society, than the children of the throne. This course of education is so fully acknowledged, that it has even been made a charge against the good sense of that excellent man and monarch, as stimulating some of the dissipations of the prince's early life, by the contrast between undue restraint and sudden liberty. Yet the charge is frivolous; the princes were under no restraint but from evil; they had their little sports and companionships; they were even, from time to time, initiated into such portions of court life as might be understood at their age; children's balls were given; the king, who was fond of music, had frequent concerts, at which the royal children were present, forming, from their number and remarkable beauty, by much the most striking portion of the spectacle; and in the numerous celebrations at Kew and Windsor, they enjoyed their full share. All their birthdays were kept with great festivity; and August, from its being an auspicious period for the royal family, the month of the Hanover accession, the battle of Minden, and the birth of three of the princes, was almost a continual holiday. Prizes were given to the watermen on the Thames, sports were held in Windsor and Kew, and the old English time of both rustic and royal merriment seemed to have come again. But there can be no difficulty in relieving the memory of George III. from the charge of undue restraint; for nothing can be idler than the theory, that to let loose the passions of the young is to inculcate self-control. Vice is not to be conquered by contagion; and the parent who gives his sons a taste of evil will soon find, that what he gave as a sedative, has been swallowed as an intoxication. Though the prince of Wales became not a sound classical scholar, he acquired his own tongue, so as to write and speak it with an elegance and purity seldom surpassed. French he spoke with fluency, and German with tolerable ease; while grace and dignity were observable in all his actions during youth. In after life, no one could turn a compliment with greater neatness, or give more value to a friendly act, by the mode of announcing it, than he. Unhappily he formed connexions early, which led him into habits of improvidence and immorality; but as he grew older, the prize-ring, the race-course, and bull-baiting, were thrown aside, and his marriage with his cousin, the princess of Brunswick, 1795, was hailed by the nation as a propitious event. Few unions, however, have been attended with a more lamentable series of consequences. By his consort he had one only child, a daughter, born in 1796, the amiable princess Charlotte of Wales, who, soon after her marriage with Leopold, prince of Saxe-Coburg, now king of Belgium, was carried to the grave, 1817. It was in 1811, upon the declaration of his medical attendants that his venerable parent was again unable to attend to state affairs, that the prince of Wales was appointed regent of the United Kingdom, with

certain limitations for one year. When the period of these restrictions had expired, and the prince became invested with the complete authority of a sovereign, it was expected that a change of administration would take place, and that the tory ministry under Mr. Perceval would be superseded by a whig one. The regent, however, declared himself satisfied with the honourable views of his father's advisers, and kept them; and when Mr. Perceval, in that same year, had fallen by the hand of an assassin, a new cabinet of the same cast was formed, having the earl of Liverpool at its head. To the end of the regency, and during his subsequent reign, George IV. displayed his attachment to tory principles; a circumstance which was thought strange, when his early friendships, almost exclusively amongst the opposite party, were remembered. The following sum of his character was written by one who possessed the means of knowing it: 'His disposition was marked by strong feelings, both of kindness and resentment; his memory was tenacious of the sense of injury; he was deficient in that magnanimity which is swift to forget the occasion of displeasure; he was affable and familiar in his address, and fond of facetious intercourse with those who were honoured with his personal intimacy. But he was jealous of his dignity beyond what so exalted a station required; and to any thoughtless violation of personal respect, even in moments when he appeared to lay aside the formal distinctions of rank, he was sensitive in the extreme. He had a heart feelingly alive to the claims of humanity, a benevolence truly munificent, and a hand 'open as day to melting charity.' His fine taste led him to patronize the arts which embellish life, more than any British sovereign since the days of the first Charles; and he was the steady patron of literature and the learned. His love of architectural display, though indulging in what was rather curious than correct, was associated with ideas of grandeur and splendid improvement; as the streets and buildings which he caused to be erected abundantly prove.' Although he could not realize the boast of Augustus, that 'he found the metropolis of brick, and left it of marble,' yet, under his auspices, a great part of London underwent a transformation quite as unexpected, and nearly as beautiful. In person, George IV. was of a commanding figure; his countenance resembled that of his mother in its general lineaments, and there was a dignity, combined with a softness of eye, which gave an attractive expression to his whole face. Latterly he became extremely corpulent; but he was nevertheless active, and scrupulously attentive to his dress, and maintained the same elegant carriage which had so distinguished him in youth. It should not be omitted, that the town of Brighton owes its celebrity and prosperity almost entirely to this sovereign, who spent the best period of his life in constructing and altering his celebrated palace there; during which his court, decidedly the most splendid and liberal in Europe, resided in the place for many months each year, and thus raised it, from the grade of a mere bathing-place, to the rank of a first-rate town, with the privilege of sending two members to parliament.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—The prince of Wales had for so many years conducted the state for his venerable parent, that when he became king *de jure*, 1820, no political change of any description took place. A great deal of discontent, however, had been manifested by the lower orders during the latter years of the regency, arising from the stagnation in business of every description, consequent upon the close of so lengthened a war; and the monarch was scarcely seated on the throne, when a conspiracy to destroy his ministers at a cabinet-dinner was detected. Thistlewood, who had been formerly tried for treason, collected a gang of desperate fellows in Cato-street, who were to march to lord Harrowby's, and throw hand-grenades into the dining-room; but a spy revealed the plot, just in time to save the party from

destruction. Thistlewood, and four of his associates being seized, they were soon after tried for high-treason, and paid the penalty of the law. The ferment occasioned by the discovery of so atrocious a design, at length subsided ; and preparations were making for the coronation of the king, when his consort, who had been separated from him soon after their marriage, returned from abroad, and demanded a participation in his honours as her just right.

It must here be stated that, some years subsequently to the separation in question, the conduct of the princess had been made the subject of a secret investigation, which, after a tedious and disgusting inquiry, ended in her acquittal. She then left England, and travelled to Syria, ultimately taking up her abode in the Austrian states of Italy ; where her intimacy with a man named Bergami, whom she had raised from the post of courier to that of chamberlain, gave rise to fresh assaults upon her fame, and caused the sending out of a commission of lawyers, to ascertain the facts of the case at Milan. It was on the 5th of June, 1820, that, calling upon the British nation to support her claims, queen Caroline landed at Dover ; and on the very day of her arrival in London, which took place with no small popular excitement, a message was sent to both houses of parliament, requesting that her conduct while in Italy should be made the subject of inquiry. A bill of pains and penalties was soon after introduced into the house of lords, to deprive her of her rights and dignities as queen, and to divorce her from her husband ; her name having been previously omitted in the church service, and all foreign powers having refused her the honours due to the rank she claimed. The trial soon began ; and after a duration of more than six weeks, the ministers who brought in the bill, could only command a majority of nine, so that they, with the usual policy, abandoned it. On the 29th of November, the queen went to St. Paul's cathedral, to return thanks for the result of the trial ; and she was escorted back to Brandenburg-house, Hammersmith, her residence, by a vast concourse of persons on horseback, on foot, and in carriages ; and indeed daily from this period, multitudes of the lower orders, and of the mechanical portion of the metropolis, flocked to the same spot with congratulatory addresses, and other tokens of an interest in her situation. It is enough here to say that her majesty's cause lost the sympathy of the more respectable classes in the nation, by the queen's suffering herself to be accompanied in her constantly public rides by alderman Wood, whereby she linked herself with a political (ultra whig) party, instead of trusting to her legal advisers. In one of these rides, or processions, the queen's coach was encountered by that of one of the royal princesses ; when the mob began pelting the attendants of the latter, because they would not bow and give way to her majesty,—to the imminent danger of the princess's life.

The coronation of the king was thus delayed until the following year ; and as it was fully resolved to prevent the queen's participation in the ceremonial, nothing short of a popular commotion was looked for. But the ceremony was at length performed, July 19th, 1821, without interruption. The queen, indeed, was so indiscreet as to present herself at the doors of Westminster-abbey, and was refused admittance ; but no notice was taken of the circumstance by the spectators, and her majesty returned to Hammersmith to brood over her disappointment. The excitement occasioned by occurrences such as have been named, necessarily affected the unhappy princess's health : while at the theatre in the beginning of August, she was seized with a violent bilious attack, and on the 7th of that month expired, at the age of fifty-two, her remains, in compliance with her dying request, being removed for interment to Brunswick. The transference of the corpse to the place of embarkation was attended with the loss of several lives : the mob compelled the

bearers to pass through the city, while the military endeavoured to turn the procession in a different direction, pursuant to the orders of the government; the consequence was, of course, a conflict. The royal body, however, was at length embarked with all solemnity on board a ship of war; and sir Bentinck Cavendish Doyle, who had, singularly enough, acted as one of her majesty's pages, when she made her nuptial voyage to England, 1795, was commander of the squadron which conveyed her back to her former and now last home and resting-place.

The king was on his way to visit Ireland, when he received the news of his consort's death. To the great joy of the people of that island, he did not turn back; but, arriving in Dublin, was received with every expression of loyalty, a countless multitude rending the air with their acclamations, and declaring he was the first English sovereign who had landed on their shores without hostile intentions. Shortly after his return, the king made an excursion to Hanover, the cradle of his race; and in the following year, 1822, paid a similar visit to Scotland. The profound peace which had succeeded one of the most momentous and protracted wars on record, was still marked by the usual natural consequences of such a transition. Employments were hard to be found for a disbanded army, the vast national debt required an immense taxation to pay its interest, agricultural produce fell in value from several causes, rents were with difficulty collected, and the famine and distress in Ireland brought on a pestilential disease, which was alone checked by the generous subscriptions of the English. The agricultural distress which ensued was chiefly the result of the fall of those artificial prices attached to produce during the war, when the constant raising of loans forced up its value. The taxes requisite to carry on the government amounted to more than 60,000,000*l.*, which were now to be raised in the country, without any equivalent; so that the farmer was at once incapacitated from paying his accustomed rate of rent, and the landowner, in many instances, rendered unable to pay the interest of his mortgages. The foundation too was laying for very serious losses amongst moneyed men; for, as capital could be employed in nothing advantageous (a currency-bill, passed 1819, having greatly impaired public credit, by substituting a metallic for a paper currency—thus lamentably restraining the speculations of merchants, so essential to the support of commerce), a species of hoarding and gathering-in began to take place. Opposed as such a principle is to the usual spirit of venture of great trading states, it was likely to be as suddenly abandoned as it had been commenced, and that with no small certainty of a mischievous issue. Two years nearly had elapsed, and no temptation powerful enough had offered for a risk of capital; but before we speak of the final result, it will be necessary to glance at a few previous occurrences. Lord Londonderry, secretary for foreign affairs, having destroyed himself in a fit of insanity, while the king was in Scotland, Mr. Canning was appointed to succeed him; and when 'the holy alliance' had authorized the entry of the French into Spain to liberate Ferdinand VII., 1823, England remained neutral. In the same year, however, every Spanish colony in South America declared itself independent, and had its independence acknowledged by the British government. In 1824 the British colonies in India and Africa were vigorously assaulted by their barbaric enemies. In the former case, the Burmese, who inhabit the peninsula on the east of Hindustan, and who, under the king of Ava, had risen to considerable importance, became formidable to the English; but after a severe conflict, they were compelled to solicit peace, which was granted on terms highly advantageous to the British. In Africa, the governor of Cape Coast, sir Charles M'Carthy, was overcome by the Ashantee king, and cruelly mur-

dered ; his head, wrapped up in a handkerchief, being carried about by the conqueror as a charm. This act, however, was subsequently avenged with severity, and the savage warrior forced to submission. Home affairs during these two years had proceeded peaceably. The year 1823 was a season of prosperity to the country generally, and to the manufacturing districts in particular ; the revenue kept upon the increase ; and large loans were freely supplied to the South-American colonists, to enable them to maintain their independence.

It was in 1824 that the public spirit was brought into full play, by the vast expectations of accumulating wealth through the agency of joint-stock companies, which established themselves professedly to work the mines of Peru and Brazil ; and, as the legal interest of money had been just reduced to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. (at which it has ever since remained), persons of all ranks, including even capitalists, began to withdraw their property from the public funds, and to invest it in these novel speculations. The year 1825 opened with the same degree of hope ; money appeared to be superabundant, and fresh schemes for appropriating it were promulgated every day—embracing every branch of trade, from the most extensive manufactures down to companies for the sale of milk, and the washing of wearing apparel ! Even *education* was attempted on the same joint-stock system ; and the boarding-schools in and around the metropolis, were suddenly ruined by dozens, through the rage which everywhere prevailed for what were called ‘proprietary schools.’ The little governing oligarchies of these establishments offered a splendid opportunity to illiterate trading men, of tyrannizing over such good scholars among the clergy and educated classes as haplessly accepted the posts of instruction, in the full expectation that they would be allowed to direct the studies of the pupils according to their own judgment and views, and with all the independence of the masters of the public schools.

The time, however, was now come for putting a check to a course which was draining the nation of its property ; and the moment that the lord chancellor, when a case connected with a joint-stock company was before him, declared that the holders of shares were liable, to the full extent of their property, for debts contracted on account of them, a gloom overcast the prospect of riches, which ingenuity had outlined, and enthusiasm had coloured with the richest tints. The share-market became crowded with sellers ; buyers were not to be found ; and those who had projected the schemes withdrew, as they found their ability, to enjoy the fruits of their craft. A deplorable reaction took place, public confidence was lost, and the nation, which had only a few months before felt the burden of a superfluous capital, now found itself on the eve of insolvency. A panic fear suddenly seized the minds of many ; and the drawing out of moneys from the country banks was soon imitated in the metropolis. In December, every banking-house in London was besieged from the hour of opening to that of closing, by anxious multitudes, whose folly, not to call it madness, was thus forcing on the catastrophe which it was their interest to avert. It was now seen, but too late, that the bill to limit the paper-currency, and establish that of the precious metals, was an unfortunate measure. Operations of commerce should be limited only by the bounds of earth and ocean, and by the judicious speculations of mercantile men. A currency, therefore, to suit the need of commerce should be bounded, not by the slow agency of scantily supplied mints, but by the credit of those engaged in traffic. If there be no credit, there can be no trade ; and trade should supply a currency for itself, quite independent of the coinage of kings and states, which is required for far other purposes. A metallic currency must be always narrow ; and had not, in the

panic in question, a reserve of one-pound notes, which had been long forgotten, accidentally been found by the governor of the Bank of England, that establishment must have ceased to meet its engagements, and all the monetary affairs of the country would have been involved, without a moment's notice, in irretrievable confusion, bankruptcy, and ruin. As it was, the consequence was not only the failure of many town and country bankers, but a total paralysis of mercantile credit; so that first the moneyed, then the manufacturing and mercantile, and ultimately the labouring classes, were affected in the most alarming manner. In a few weeks, hundreds of families were reduced from the summit of prosperity to a state of absolute poverty; and the blow, like the thunder-clap, circulated until, in each successive reverberation, it had touched every grade of persons in the empire, reaching at length, even the continental and colonial connexions of our merchants. Nor in the storm of destruction which thus fearfully raged, were those minor attempts at investment of capital spared its pitiless pelting. Milk and washing companies, blacking establishments and proprietary schools, were involved in one common ruin;—a ruin which may be regarded as a retributive punishment for the unjust invasion of the rights and interests of their fellow men by the projectors of those selfish schemes.

The state of foreign affairs somewhat turned the public attention from the contemplation of domestic grievances, in the beginning of 1826. The succession to the throne of Portugal was disputed by the two sons of the late king John, and an expedition was sent out from England to aid the elder brother, Don Pedro; and in 1827 the contest between the Turks and Greeks, wherein the latter struggled for emancipation, was brought to a close by the sea-fight of Navarino. In the same year, the duke of York, who had so long commanded the army, and was emphatically styled 'the soldier's friend,' paid the debt of nature; the death of Mr. Canning, who had succeeded lord Liverpool as prime minister, soon followed; and the reins of government passed quickly in succession through the hands of lord Goderich into those of the duke of Wellington. In 1828 the country had somewhat recovered from the dreadful blow of 1825; and the claims of the British Roman Catholics to emancipation from the restraints put upon them at the revolution, were so far listened to in parliament, as to occasion the repeal of the test and corporation acts, which required the receiving of the Eucharist according to the rites of the church of England, as a qualification for office. The formation of what were termed 'Brunswick clubs,' to resist all further concession to the papists, occasioned no small agitation in various parts of the country; and in Ireland there was so much violence displayed, that a civil war was on the point of breaking out, when, in the spring of 1829, a bill passed both houses, granting the desired emancipation. Nothing of moment occurred between the carrying of this important question (which had occupied every session of the houses from the time of the union with Ireland), if we except the general conviction which seized the minds of the thinking portion of the people, that the free-trade system, begun to be acted upon at the close of the régency (1815—1820), and since continued, had been already productive of serious mischief, and, together with the metallic currency, had greatly tended to produce the panic of 1825. There could be no question that, by our indiscreet communication to foreigners of the mechanism by which we had become a rich and prosperous trading community, there had already arisen in Normandy, Belgium, Switzerland, &c. (which in 1815 had scarcely a single cotton factory), almost as many cotton mills as there are in Lancashire and Cheshire, entirely established by British machinery, frames, and the whole apparatus for steam-work. The consequence was a competition and underselling, which, with

the advantages of climate, soil, and water, possessed by the continent, operated seriously to the prejudice of English manufactures, and, by throwing many artificers out of work, prepared the way for those public discontents and disturbances, which terminated in the introduction and passing of the 'Reform Bill' in the next reign.

The health of his majesty had been declining some time when his last illness seized him; and he expired at Windsor castle, June 26, 1830, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. He was buried, after lying in state, with the usual solemn pomp and ceremony, in the chapel of St. George, at Windsor.

EVENTS.

THE CATO-STREET CONSPIRACY, 1820.—Early in the month of January it had been known to the government that an attempt at the assassination of his majesty's ministers was meditating, and that Arthur Thistlewood was at the bottom of it. On Tuesday, February 22, certain advice was received, that the attempt was to be made on the ensuing night, at the earl of Harrowby's, in Grosvenor-square. It is supposed that the earl's was fixed upon, because, being nearer the outlet from London than the residence of any other of the cabinet-ministers, an escape out of town, should the attempt prove unsuccessful, would have been more easy. Be this as it may, the conspirators, as soon as they had ascertained that the cabinet-dinner was to be held there, lost no time in arranging their diabolical project. The place chosen to settle finally their proceedings, to collect their force, and to arm themselves, was in a mean street, called Cato-street, near the Edgware-road. The premises occupied by the conspirators consisted of a three-stall stable, with a loft above, in a very dilapidated condition. The people in Cato-street were utterly ignorant that the stable was let until the Wednesday, when several persons were seen to go in and out, and carefully to lock the door after them. Some of these individuals carried sacks, and parcels of various descriptions. For two or three hours previously to any attack upon the stable, police-officers were on the spot, making their observations; but still no suspicion was excited among the inhabitants, of the

real object of their visit. At the appointed hour, the officers, furnished with warrants from Mr. Birnie, the magistrate, and accompanied by a detachment of the Coldstream guards, entered Cato-street. The conspirators had taken the precaution to place a sentinel below; and the only approach to them in the loft was by a ladder, not wide enough for more than one to ascend it at a time. Ruthven, a policeman, went first, followed by three others, Ellis, Smithers, and Salmon. Thistlewood was nearest to the door of the loft, armed with a drawn sword; the whole number of conspirators in the room was twenty-five. Before the officers mounted to the loft, they secured the sentinel placed at the foot of the ladder; but he contrived by some means to give those in the loft notice of what was occurring below, since, on ascending, they found the whole party hastily arming, some with belts, and pistols stuck in them, others loading hand-grenades and muskets. There was a large quantity of ammunition in the room, and a sack full of combustibles. Ruthven was the first to burst into the loft, and Thistlewood made an attempt to cut him down, but failed. Ellis, Smithers, Salmon, and others, followed close, with the magistrate, Mr. Birnie. The conspirators were ordered to lay down their arms, and to surrender; and while Ruthven was trying to secure the door, to prevent escape, Smithers advanced to seize Thistlewood. The latter immediately ran his sword through his assailant's body, and Smithers fell back into Ruthven's arms, and expired. Thistle-

wood then called to his party to put out the lights; whereon Ruthven pointed a pistol at him, which missed fire, and Ellis discharged another at him, but failed in hitting him. The guards, headed by captain Fitzclarence, now entered the loft; but in the confusion and darkness that prevailed (for the candles had been extinguished, and there was no light but that momentarily produced by the flash of pistols), many of the conspirators made their escape by a back-window, and amongst them Thistlewood. Nine only were secured: but on the 25th, Thistlewood himself was arrested at a house in Clare-market. On the 17th of April the whole party were tried; and on the 1st of May Thistlewood, and four of his associates, Iugs, Brunt, Tidd, and Davidson, were executed at Newgate, as traitors, glorying in what they had attempted, and regretting the failure of their atrocious enterprise.

Some were found to complain of the use which government had made of spies on this occasion; but as the guilt of the prisoners was established by evidence altogether independent of that of one Edwards, who had been set to watch and entrap them, the case is free from the circumstance which renders such a course objectionable—the hazard of confiding in the testimony or information of men, who are professedly pursuing a system of deceit and treachery. As the facts were proved by incontrovertible evidence, so the plot was clearly the result of the most infuriated depravity. It is ridiculous to talk of the seduction of men, who, in a court of justice, defended assassination as a virtue, and who, even on the scaffold, exulted in the remembrance of their scheme of murder, as a picture with the contemplation of which their fancy could never be satiated. [Arthur Thistlewood (1772—1820), was the son of a Lincolnshire farmer, and soon after obtaining a lieutenant's commission in the supplementary militia, 1797, married a young lady of some fortune. He

then resided at Bantry, in Yorkshire; but his wife dying in about eighteen months, he went to Lincoln, where he abandoned himself to dissipation, and having squandered his property at the gaming-table, was obliged to take refuge in London. There he remained some time, making, however, occasional voyages to America and France; where he connected himself with the partisans of anarchy and revolution, and probably contracted that spirit of discontent, which influenced his future conduct. After the peace of Amiens, he returned to England, and improved his circumstances by a second marriage. But he had now become a gambler by profession; and having associated himself with other persons of desperate character, he engaged in schemes which drew on him the notice of government. When the riots in Spa-fields took place, he was arrested with Watson and others; and the proceedings against him on that occasion serving to irritate his passions, and prompt him to very outrageous behaviour towards lord Sidmouth, then secretary of state, he was detained in prison for a considerable time. Instantly on his liberation, he became the principal agent in the conspiracy which led to his ignominious death.]

ALLEGED MIRACLES OF ALEXANDER, PRINCE HOHENLOHE.—In 1821, one of the members of the ancient house of Hohenlohe, resident in Bavaria, who had entered into holy orders, affected to be able, by prayer and exhortation, to cure various diseases. Crowds flocked in consequence to Bamberg, the theatre of his fame, from all parts of Germany—the lame, the blind, and the paralytic; and in a short time there were hundreds who attested his efficiency in their own persons, and thousands who were willing to attest it in the persons of others. The influx of needy persons, however, became so burthensome and annoying to the people of Bamberg, that the authorities interfered, and prince Hohen-

lohe removed his residence into Austria; after which nothing more was heard of his proceedings. Various cures were said to have been effected in Ireland through the prince's intercession; the most remarkable of which took place in the convent of Ranelagh, near Dublin, on the person of Miss Mary Stuart, a member of that establishment. Dr. Murray, the Roman-catholic primate of England, recognised the miracle; and in a pastoral address published immediately afterwards remarked, that 'the voice of these facts, issuing from the bosom of his sanctuary, and publishing the glory of God with the loudness of thunder, may strike upon the ears and hearts of many to whom the voice of our ministry could not reach.' Then he proceeded to the facts in the following terms: 'Mary Stuart, of the convent of St. Joseph, Ranelagh, has, through the interposition of that Omnipotent Being who killeth and maketh alive, been restored instantaneously to health, from a state of grievous and hopeless infirmity, for the relief of which all the resources of human skill had been expended in vain. The account of this wonderful case reached us officially on the 2d instant, in a letter from Mrs. Mary Catharine Meade, prioress of St. Joseph's convent, under date of the preceding evening. This communication stated in substance, that one of the religious sisters of that community had been afflicted with sickness for four years and about seven months; that during that period she had frequent attacks of paralysis, each of which seemed to threaten her with immediate dissolution; that the most powerful remedies had been applied, without producing any other than partial, or temporary relief; that for several months past she had been confined to her bed, wholly deprived of the power of assisting herself, or of moving out of the position in which she was laid; that when moved by her attendants, how gently soever, she not only suffered much pain, but was

also liable to considerable danger, and to the temporary loss of speech; that for the last five weeks she had entirely lost the power of articulation; that, up to the morning of the first instant, she continued in this deplorable state, without any symptoms of amendment, and apparently beyond the reach of human aid; that on a certain hour that morning, as had been settled by previous arrangement, she united her devotions (as did also her numerous friends) with the holy sacrifice of the mass which was to be offered by Alexander prince Hohenlohe, in the hope of obtaining immediately from God that relief which no human means could afford; that, with this view, she received, though with much difficulty, the divine communion at the mass which was celebrated at the same hour in her chamber for her recovery; that mass being ended, and no cure yet effected, she was in the act of resigning herself with perfect submission to the will of God, when instantly she felt a power of movement, and a capability of speech; that she exclaimed, with an animated voice, 'Holy, holy, holy, Lord God of hosts!' and raised herself without assistance, to offer on bended knees the tribute of her gratitude to heaven; that she then called for her attire, left that bed to which she had been for so many months fastened, walked to the convent chapel with a firm step, and there, in presence of the community and congregation, joined her religious sisters in the solemn thanksgiving which was offered up to God for this wonderful and manifest interposition of his goodness.' These facts were laid by the archbishop before the Catholic priesthood and laity of Dublin, and pronounced by him as constituting a miracle of the most positive and regular description. To establish his testimony, he subjoined certificates from several medical gentlemen, with affidavits from five religieuses of the convent, and two clergymen who officiated on the occasion. At last the convent itself

was thrown open, that all who chose might hear from Mary Stuart's own lips the detail of her complicated sufferings, succeeded by the account of her miraculous restoration to health, and concluded by the ardent attestations of her religious sisters.

Although we can readily think prince Hohenlohe's prayers had nothing to do with Miss Stuart's recovery, we are by no means inclined to question the efficacy of fervent prayer, with faith in the Saviour's merits. It is surely wrong to allege (as some have done in writing upon Miss Stuart's case) that such a cure (if a fact) was simply the result of an excitable mind acting upon a nervous frame; for in the same way we might find a natural cause for every intervention of Divine Providence. Nervous excitement has thrown many into fits, and got sudden rid of corporeal obstructions; but it has never yet been known to remove the debility of months and years in an instant. If there be a particular Providence, it goes out of the way to afford aid to prayer, and thus continually performs miracles; and they make prayer a mockery, who can affirm that the relief which follows our petitions for things proper, is not their promised consequence, but the accidental result of some concurrent agency. It is very right to be cautious how we give credit, when events opposed to our common experience occur; but it is as easy to doubt as to be credulous, and as difficult to show the line of demarcation whereat true faith ends, and superstition begins. The fact of Miss Stuart's cure is substantiated by a physician who was evidently, as we gather from his words, not in collusion with any party to deceive: on being closely questioned by the proper authorities, he replied, 'There was not, in my opinion, any thing miraculous in the change which took place in Miss Stuart's health; and her case can, to my entire satisfaction, be accounted for on natural principles.' The letters of Mrs. Meade, the prioress,

again, fully confirm what is alleged as to the instant change from a long period of extreme debility to comparative strength and activity; and that lady as strongly believed in the miracle as in her own identity.

LAMPETER COLLEGE FOUNDED, 1822, at Lampeter, Cardiganshire, as St. David's college, by bishop Burgess, together with various village schools, for the benevolent purpose of diminishing the cost of education to such Welshmen, with small fortune, as might desire to enter holy orders, but could not afford the expenses of Oxford and Cambridge.

FALL OF INTEREST, 1822. As those who possessed property in the public funds continued to receive their former amount of interest, though articles of consumption could be purchased at a cheaper rate, much envy was excited amongst such of the agricultural and other portions of the people, as had nothing but the sale of their goods to look to for support. This moment of jealousy was embraced by the ministry to reduce the rate of interest on a portion of national debt: the navy 5 per cent. stock was brought down to four per cent., and, in two years after, the 4 per cents. were lowered to 3½. The measure gave a temporary relief to the government, but brought much distress upon a large class of the community; who, having advanced their money for the defence of the country in times of difficulty and danger, had reasonably expected that their property would have remained sacred. As the subject of *money matters* is imperfectly understood by the general reader, we will attempt a brief sketch of the cause of wealth, &c.

In the early ages of the world, when men began to see that their respective wants could be best supplied by the application of each individual to some one useful art, trade arose. Every man, instead of being his own provider of food, clothing, and habitation, devoted himself to supply only one want, or class of

wants, and was either a raiser of cattle or corn, a maker of garments, a tent-maker, carpenter, sword-maker, &c. Trade consisted in barter. The breeder of cattle exchanged his ox for the vestments of the clothier, or the tools of the artisan. This being often attended with inconvenience and difficulty, a medium of exchange, which should enable the barterers to mark with precision the differences of value, was to be sought. Probably stones and shells were the first substances resorted to for the purpose; but the superior utility of the ductile metals would soon be observed; and ultimately the scarcest and handsomest of those, gold and silver, would be selected as the media of exchange or money. Shells, called *cowries*, are still used in lieu of coin by some barbaric states in Africa. In the kingdom of Kashma, west of Bornou, 2000 cowries are the exchange of a dollar, five will buy a fowl, 600 a sheep, and 2500 an ox. These shells also pass as money in the Philippine isles and Maldives: of which latter they form the chief article of export. Women catch them in baskets, after high tides; and having heaped them on the sea-shore, the fish in them soon die, and are picked out. They are then sent off for coin to Siam, Burmah, &c. Money represents the excess of production over consumption. When an artisan, after the sale of his works, finds he has more money in his hands than will be sufficient to reproduce goods equal in quantity and value to those he has sold, that overplus is pure profit; and if he save it, that saving, with other like savings, constitutes *capital*. Every saving marks the excess of production over consumption; and the accumulation of like excesses is the basis of wealth.

Wealth is either individual or national. Individual riches consist in one man's savings or capital; national, in the united savings of the individuals that compose a state. Consumption is either productive or unproductive; productive is that

which supports the artisan (food, candles, the wear of tools, &c., the wood or leather or metal of which he forms his works), while he is engaged in the work of production: unproductive consumption is that which goes to support those who do not labour to produce. Production is either direct or indirect; direct, in the case of the artisan who consumes to produce forthwith; indirect, when the consumer does not work to produce, but gives his children a liberal education, whereby each will be competent at a future period to produce, &c. Alternate consumption and production are the links which, in the chain of existence, throw off wealth at every turn, originating countless and endless branch-chains in like manner productive. Consumption is essential to production: accumulation facilitates consumption, and so effects production.

Capital, in the early times, lay dormant. Men hoarded in coffers as much money as would enable them to pass the rest of their days at ease, and then left off labour. By such a method, their savings were put to no use beyond their own consumption, and were totally absorbed at the period of death. There could be no national wealth, where individuals refused to lend their savings for the uses of production. Capital, in the present day, is not suffered to lie dormant. The most effectual means of employing it in commercial countries is afforded by the banking system, which originated with the Venetians, 1157. The bank of England, now the largest of its kind in Europe, was projected by Mr. Paterson, a Scotsman, 1694. The object of banking is to provide for the full and constant employment of the floating capital of the nation; so as, in fact, to promote to the utmost degree individual and national wealth. This it effects by discounting, at short dates, the bills of merchants, whose power of production would be circumscribed but for this occasional assistance. Bankers, however, should

rather be cautious than kind in their loan transactions. It is their duty, as it is their interest, to be considerate; but the too ready compliance of some bankers has, besides causing the prudent backwardness of others to look like harshness, not unfrequently been the origin of ruin to themselves, and great consequent loss to the community. There is no knowing where the mischief of a single banker's failure may end.

When capitalists unite to further works of public utility, such as bridges, docks, railroads, &c., they benefit the nation far beyond the aid they afford to such undertakings. Suppose they advance their money to complete a rail-road. Two merchants residing at 100 miles of distance from each other have, before the formation of the railway, exchanged goods by canal or otherwise, at an annual expense to each of 1000*l*. The transit on the rail-road costs each 200*l*. Here is a clear saving of 800*l*. per year apiece; and as the rate of carriage materially influences the price of goods, the merchants are respectively enabled to take off a portion of price at selling. Admitting that they do not let their customers have more than one-half the advantage gained, that is still a great public benefit, and must materially tend to augment individual savings, and consequently the national capital.

But consumption is either productive or not. The man of fortune who lives up to his income, is an unproductive consumer, though he does not diminish his capital; because he saves nothing to lend to others at interest for the promotion of their undertakings, by which employment would be afforded to many more persons than he can find work for by his ordinary expenditure, (for he will maintain no more servants, &c. at the end of twenty years than he did at the commencement,) *which many more* would be again the cause of saving; while his own capital being increased would, on being lent again,

employ yet more productive consumers, and so on. By such a course alone could the increasing population of a country be well supported without a diminution of wages. The spendthrift is not only an unproductive consumer, but the destroyer of the principle of production. Mortgaging his estates, he lives upon their capital, withdrawing it from the use of many productive consumers, who, thus deprived of subsistence, cause a lowering of wages to others of their class, by their competition for labour. Were all capitalists to become spendthrifts, ruin would be the speedy result to all classes.

The nature of the public funds, &c., must now be concisely described. From the time of William III. the English government, when requiring more money for war than could be supplied by taxation, has proposed terms to the nation for obtaining an advance of money, by mortgaging the revenue of future years for the indemnification of lenders. This mortgage may be either for a limited period or perpetual; and the parties lending may agree to accept of certain annual allowances for a certain time as a full equivalent, or to receive a life-annuity, or an annuity with the benefit of survivorship, called a *tontine*, whereby the whole sum to which the original annuitants were entitled, continues to be distributed amongst the survivors. The different investments are called stocks, each being limited by parliament to a certain sum; so that, when each fund is completed, no more stock can be bought, though shares already purchased may be transferred from one person to another by selling. In this sale, a stock-holder may gain by parting with his share, should the value of the stock be higher than when he bought it; for the price of stocks is influenced by the plenty or scarcity of money, and by the quantity of the public debt, and is impaired by any event which threatens the safety or weakens the credit of the government.

The expenditure of the state, when it is defrayed by loans instead of taxes, has the double effect of increasing demand at one end, and diminishing supply at the other; since what would probably have been accumulated, or converted into a productive capital, is not only kept back from this particular application of it, but is furthermore unproductively expended. Since the price of commodities is thereby greatly enhanced, the rate of profit is also raised; and the result is necessarily an addition to the wealth of merchants and traders, in great measure at the cost of the landed interest of the country. So soon is the balance of property disturbed in a commercial state. The Bank of England is the agent for government in managing the affairs of 'the stocks,' which are called collectively 'the national debt;' and that establishment makes the quarterly payment of interest by the money raised in taxation—three-fifths of all the taxes annually going to support that interest.

Exchequer-bills were first issued also by William III. (under parliament), and are for sums varying from 100*l.* to 1000*l.*, and bear interest at present $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. per cent. per diem. About twenty-eight millions of money in these bills are usually outstanding and unprovided for by any express mortgage of the public income; and exchequer-bills, therefore, form the chief part of the unfunded debt of the country. They afford great convenience to both individuals and the public at large. Their aid to individuals arises from their passing from hand to hand, without the necessity of making a formal transfer; of their bearing interest; and of their not being subject to such violent fluctuations as sometimes occur in the prices of the funded debt. This comparative steadiness in value is caused by the option periodically given to the holders to be paid their amount at par, or to exchange them for new bills, to which the same advantage is extended; besides that,

when a certain limited period has elapsed from the date of their first issue, they may be paid to the government at par, in discharge of duties and taxes. The amount of premium that may have been paid at the time of purchase, is consequently all that the holder of an exchequer-bill risks in return for the interest which accrues during the time that it remains in his possession. The advantage to the public consists in the lower rate of interest which they carry, compared with the permanent or funded debt of the nation; to which, however, they must in this respect bear some certain proportion. When the price of the public funds is high, the interest upon exchequer-bills will be low; and if, through any public or commercial derangement, the funds should fall in price, so as to afford a much more profitable investment than exchequer-bills, the rate of interest upon these must be raised, in order to prevent their payment into the exchequer, in discharge of duties; a thing which would embarrass the financial operations of government. In periods of public pressure, arising from causes which are believed to be temporary, it has sometimes been considered advisable by parliament to make advances to merchants upon the security of goods; these advances have been made by the issue of exchequer-bills, which have been cancelled when the exigency that called for them has passed away. A more permanent occasion for their issue, apart from the immediate wants of government, has been the desire of aiding individuals, or private associations, in the prosecution of works of public utility, such as canals, roads, &c. In these cases, the rate of interest charged to the borrowers is somewhat greater than that borne by the bills; and the difference has been applied to defray the expense of management on the part of the public. The ground for the first issue of exchequer-bills was that the whole silver currency of the kingdom was

obliged to be called in suddenly for recoinage, being reduced by clipping and filing to half its nominal value; and when paper-credit had once been established, the convenience it had afforded insured its perpetuity. The paper of the Bank of England (then just established) was of no amount at the time, and even at a discount.

Exchange is the daily settlement to accounts at the Royal Exchange, between merchants of different countries; and it is rendered difficult by the varying value of the currencies of the respective nations. What is called *the par* is necessary to be found with as much accuracy as the different coins will allow; and liquidation of debts or differences is effected by a *bill of exchange*. The *Stock Exchange* business consists in a species of betting on the price of stocks at a future day. Persons possessed of no property in the funds have thus contracted for the sale of stock; and the business is generally settled (without any actual purchase or transfer of stocks) by A. paying to B., or receiving from him, the difference between the current price of the stock on the day appointed and the price bargained for. The buyer, on these occasions, is called a *bull*, and the seller a *bear*. As neither party can be compelled by law to implement these bargains, their sense of honour, and the loss of future credit which attends a breach of contract, are the principles by which the business is supported. When a person declines to pay his loss, he is called a *lame duck*, and dare never afterwards appear in Exchange-alley.

MEXICAN REVOLUTION, 1822.—Augustino Iturbide (the leader of this movement, which had in view to change a republic into a monarchy) was born at Valladolid de Mechoacan, in New Spain, 1784, received a very careful education, and obtained rank as a lieutenant in the provincial regiment of his native city. In 1810, when the troubles of Mexico broke out, he entered into active service against the patriots, and was engaged

in various contests with bodies of his insurgent countrymen. Borne along by circumstances in the career of arms, he had risen in 1816, by his valour and capacity, to the command of what was called 'the northern army,' but became suspected and accused of want of fidelity to the royal cause. The disgust which he felt in consequence of this charge, led him to retire for a while from active service; till in 1820 he again took the field, under circumstances which gave him unexpected importance. At that period the imprudent acts of the Spanish cortes produced so much exasperation among the clergy and the partisans of absolutism in Mexico, that even these persons united to effect the independence of the country, hitherto a colony of Spain. They selected Iturbide as their director, remembering his zealous agency in putting down the revolutionists and republicans of past years, and being at the same time wholly unconscious of the views of personal aggrandisement which he entertained. Iturbide proposed the independence of Mexico, the protection of religion, and the union of the colonial Spaniards and the native Mexicans. At the same time, an offer of the crown was made to various members of the royal family of Spain, with the proviso of the country being held henceforth as a free monarchy. On the strength of this plan, Iturbide continued his march to Queretaro, and was soon joined by Victoria, the most devoted of the friends of liberty. The road to power was now entirely open before Iturbide. He took possession of the capital in the name of the nation, and established a regency, consisting of members nominated by himself, and wholly under his control. The republican party soon saw the object of his movements. A congress had been assembled, which made various attempts to counteract his designs by diminishing his power, and at last brought the matter to an open rupture and a crisis. Iturbide, seeing no other way to preserve his

authority, resolved to usurp the crown, through the subservency of his troops. Accordingly, May 18th, 1822, the garrison and a part of the populace of Mexico rose and proclaimed Iturbide emperor, under the name of Augustin I. The next morning congress was convened in extraordinary session, in the midst of the acclamations of the multitude, whose cries often drowned the voices of the deputies. The agents of Iturbide obtained a decree requiring his presence; and he appeared, accompanied by a number of military officers, having been drawn through the streets by the rabble. His election to the imperial dignity was proposed and discussed in his presence, and was voted for by seventy-seven deputies, out of ninety-four who had assembled; being about one half the whole body of delegates. Shortly afterwards, the congress decided that the crown should be hereditary in the family of Iturbide, gave to his sons and his father the title of princes, fixed upon him a yearly allowance of 1,500,000 dollars, and established an order of knighthood; thus completing in every thing the accessories of the new monarchy. The friends of republican institutions, overawed and held at bay by the power of the usurper, fled to their wonted retreats, or temporized until a fitting season should arrive for acting with union and efficiency; but they could not and did not acquiesce in a state of things so adverse to their feelings. Iturbide was driven by his necessities to exasperate the minds of the people, already disgusted with successive minor usurpations. Defection now became general among the officers of the army, and in all the provinces; so that Iturbide, seeing plainly that his cause was hopeless, hastily assembled at Mexico the dispersed members of congress, and tendered to them his abdication, March 20th, 1828. Congress very generously agreed to grant the ambitious chief a large yearly pension, on condition of his leaving the Mexican territory for

ever, and residing somewhere in Italy; and suitable provision was made for his family in case of his death. He proceeded to the coast, under escort of general Bravo, and embarked May 11th, 1823 for Leghorn; and he might have continued to live happily in one of the charming villas of Tuscany, had he not been impelled by an insane ambition to attempt the recovery of his power.

With this object he left Italy for England, and embarked for Mexico, May 11th, 1824, precisely a year after his departure from it, and arrived in sight of the port of Soto la Marina, July 14th. During the year that had elapsed, the Mexicans had adopted a republican constitution, and Iturbide had neither party nor friends in the nation. The government had been apprised of his leaving Italy, and, suspecting his design, a decree was passed, bearing date April 28th, 1824, declaring him to be proscribed as a traitor, and requiring that, in case he landed in the country, the mere fact should render him a public enemy. Wholly deceived in regard to the fate which awaited him, Iturbide landed at Soto la Marina, accompanied only by his secretary, a Pole, named Beneski, and was almost immediately arrested by the commandant-general of the state of Tamaulipas; who lost no time in conducting his prisoner to Padilla, the provincial capital. Here, July 19th, at six in the afternoon, after having confessed himself, he was conducted to the place of execution, and having made a short address to the people, protesting his innocence of any treasonable purpose, was shot.

There are some particulars concerning the present state of the Mexican republic in a recent work of Madame Calderon de la Barca, the wife of the Spanish ambassador to Mexico, 1839, who, together with his lady, resided in the country during the year 1840. Most of us, under particular circumstances, are led to entertain a very erroneous notion of this large and most picturesque

division of the new world. The 'History of Dr. Robertson' and the volumes of Washington Irving upon the subject of the discovery and conquest of America by Columbus, Cortes, and Pizarro, are so fresh upon our minds, and so fill and pre-occupy our imaginations, that we are led insensibly to confound the Mexico of 1492 with the Mexico of the present day; and to expect to find the empire and city of Montezuma in the Mexico of 1842, and under the presidency of St. Anna. We thus forget, that upwards of 300 years have passed over the old Mexican city; and that, built of baked clay and dried mud as the metropolis of the Mexican emperor was, not one stone upon another, not to say one single hut or house of the city, now remains. The present city of Mexico is thus in every respect a Spanish city, with churches, palaces, and public buildings, built in the solid style (most of them from 200 to 300 years old), and in the fashion of Spanish and European architecture. All the houses are thus European in their form and manner of building, and every article and utensil is shaped and constructed on the model of the like articles in Madrid and Seville. There is, indeed, this difference; that the former riches of the mines have been lavishly expended in the decoration of the city, and that every successive viceroy, through the long course of 300 years, has left a memorial of himself in some splendid palace, church, or cathedral, or in the conversion of the ancient lakes and morasses into parks, gardens, and ornamented villas. Accordingly, there is not a more splendid city in the world than the Mexico of the present day; though the excesses of almost annual revolutions have defaced many of its artificial and even many of its natural beauties. Madame de la Barca and her husband having landed at Vera Cruz, and remained there for the day, the embassy proceeded upon its road to Mexico. In the course of the journey, the am-

bassador was invited to a breakfast at the villa of St. Anna, the president of the former year. 'St. Anna,' writes madame, 'is a gentlemanly, good-looking, quietly-dressed, rather melancholy-looking person, with one leg, apparently somewhat of an invalid, and to us the most interesting person in the group. He has a sallow complexion, fine dark eyes, soft and penetrating, and an interesting expression of face. Calderon gave him a letter from the queen, written under the supposition of his being still president, with which he seemed much pleased, but merely made the innocent observation, 'How very well the queen writes!' It was only now and then that the expression of his eye was startling, especially when he spoke of his leg, which is cut off below the knee: He speaks of it frequently, like sir John Ramorny of his bloody hand; and when he gives an account of his wound, and alludes to the French on that day, his countenance assumes that air of bitterness which Ramorny's may have exhibited when speaking of 'Harry the Smith.' Otherwise, he made himself very agreeable, spoke a great deal of the United States, and of the persons he had known there, and in his manners was quiet and gentlemanlike, and altogether a more polished hero than I had expected to see. To judge from the past, he will not long remain in his present state of inaction, besides having within him, according to Zavala, 'a principle of action for ever impelling him forward.'" As the day and the journey proceeded, the scenery became exceedingly picturesque. 'It was difficult to believe, as we journeyed on, that we were now in the midst of December. The air was soft and balmy. The heat, without being oppressive, that of a July day in England. The road through a succession of woody country; trees covered with every variety of blossom, and laden with the most delicious tropical fruits; flowers of every colour filling the air with fragrance; and the most fantastical pro-

fusion of parasitical plants intertwining the branches of the trees, and flinging their bright blossoms over every bough. Palms, cocoas, oranges, lemons, succeeded one another; and at one turn of the road, down in a lovely green valley, we caught a glimpse of an Indian woman, with her long hair, resting under the shade of a lofty tree, beside a running stream—an Oriental picture. Had it not been for the dust and the jolting, nothing could have been more delightful. There is not one human being or passing object to be seen, that is not in itself a picture, or which would not form a good subject for the pencil. The Indian women, with their plaited hair, and little children slung to their backs, their large straw hats, and petticoats of two colours—the long strings of arrieros, with their laden mules, and swarthy, wild-looking faces—the chance horseman who passes with his *sarape* of many colours, his high ornamented saddle, Mexican hat, silver stirrups, and leathern boots—all is picturesque.

It is customary for travellers from Vera Cruz to stop for a few hours' rest at the Place del Rio; but Madame Calderon had resolved to sleep at Jalapa, which she thus describes:—'The town consists of little more than a few steep streets, very old, with some large and excellent houses, the best, as usual, belonging to English merchants, and many to those of Vera Cruz, who come to live in or near Jalapa, during the reign of the *vamito*. There are some old churches, a very old convent of Franciscan monks, and a well-supplied market-place. Everywhere there are flowers—roses creeping over the old walls, Indian girls making green garlands for the Virgin and saints, flowers in the shops, flowers at the windows, but, above all, everywhere one of the most splendid mountain views in the world. The *Cafre de Perate*, with its dark pine forests and gigantic *chest* (a rock of porphyry which takes that form), and the still loftier snow-

white peak of Orizava, tower above all the others, seeming like the colossal guardians of the land. The intervening mountains, the dark cliffs and fertile plains, the thick woods of lofty trees clothing the hills and the valleys, a glimpse of the distant ocean, the surrounding lanes shaded by fruit trees, aloes, bananas, chirimayas, mingled with the green liquid amber, the flowering myrtle, and hundreds of plants and shrubs and flowers of every colour and of delicious fragrance, all combine to form one of the most varied and beautiful scenes that the eye can behold. Then Jalapa itself, so old and gray, and rose-recovered, with a sound of music issuing from every open door and window, and its soft and agreeable temperature, presents a series of agreeable impressions not easily effaced.'

The embassy continued its journey, and passing through Puebla, the second city of the republic, reached the environs of Mexico. The noble authoress gives a very lively sketch of the present state of manners, habits, and form of daily life, among the different classes in this transatlantic capital. It appears that several English families, chiefly merchants, are at this time resident in Mexico, and have carried thither the peculiar habits, the coldness and reserve of their own country; uniformly repelling, with very bad taste, all the approaches of the Mexicans to family and domestic intercourse, and, very absurdly, only visiting among themselves. The following is a condensed account of Madame de Calderon's view of Mexican society. One singular feature is the astonishing amount of treasure in diamonds and plate, which still remains in the possession of persons in every class of Mexican society; not only in the rich and noble, but even among those private families, which in England would be deemed to be only in the third and fourth class of conventional rank and condition. Being the wife of the ambassador, the Countess de

Calderon was of course invited daily to some ball, dinner, or supper; and everywhere she encountered the same surprising display of diamonds and silver plate. At one public ball, almost every lady had diamond earrings and necklaces, varying in value from 1000*l.* to 20,000*l.* The countess had seen lady Londonderry's diamonds in London or Vienna; but here, she says, were many ladies as richly and sumptuously attired. The necklaces are generally brilliants; but sometimes they consist of pearls of such large size, as are only to be seen in Europe on the arms and necks of foreign sovereigns, or English duchesses. At a private breakfast, consisting of sixty persons sitting down at once at table, every article of the breakfast-table, with the exception of the cups and saucers, that is, the dishes, fruit-baskets, plates, &c., were all of solid silver, and in such quantity as is never seen in the wealthiest houses in Europe. Every young man, also, even in the condition of a tradesman, before leading his bride to the altar, is expected to make her a present of a diamond or pearl necklace and ear-rings, varying in value from 250*l.* to 500*l.* Accordingly, it is very rare to see any of the wives of these tradesmen, even in the smallest shops, without this valuable appendage. The reason appears to be, that money, or what we should call capital, from the want of trade and active industry, takes this particular form, and is thus stored up in plate and jewels. Upon visiting one of the mines, the countess saw an immense heap of silver in ore; and upon expressing her admiration at the immense quantity, and at the utter carelessness with which it was exposed, she was requested to help herself to any portion of it which she would be pleased to accept. Upon her giving a smile as her answer, she was told that the offer was less liberal than it appeared; for in truth there was such a want of quicksilver, that it was exceedingly difficult to refine the ore and work it up; and

that the distance from the port of embarkation was also so great, and the roads so bad, as greatly to reduce the value of silver in mere ore.

Here, they added, namely, at Real del Monte, 'is an English company, who have hired the mines and are working them: they have made these magnificent roads, and have brought these costly engines; but we are afraid they will not succeed to any great extent in their speculation.'

Another curious mark of Mexican life very much resembles what we see amongst the negroes in our own West India islands: the land is so fertile, the power of the sun on vegetation is so quick and great, and the habits of the people as to diet are so simple and frugal, that one day's labour in the week is sufficient to supply a family with all it requires. They are content, therefore, with giving this one day's labour, and pass the other six days in amusement and idleness; but they are still very happy, and exceedingly cheerful. In the country there is no appearance of poverty whatever; and even in the cities, with the exception of their indifferent clothing, there is nothing like destitution. Every one has sufficient to eat and to drink; and the warmth of the climate renders their moderate and worthless clothing sufficient. The wages of servants are as high as they are in England; a coachman has 60*l.* per year, a footman 25*l.*, a cook 30*l.*, and a housemaid 10*l.* or 12*l.* per year. English coaches are very common, as also English saddlery, harness, &c.; and nothing seems wanting to extend English commerce, but more knowledge on the part of the English merchants as to the habits of the people. In 1840 the countess states that there were not more than twelve English merchants resident in Mexico; all of them prosperous, and, in despite of their anti-social manners, very much respected. There was a more numerous supply of Frenchmen, 'but nearly all of them (says the countess), of a very disreputable class; artistes, modestes, music and dancing-masters,

figurantes, milliners, haberdashers, and sellers of some trumpery or other; all of them in very low estimation, from their reputed manners, and their total want of all religious and moral habits. For though the Mexicans are idle and fond of pleasure, they still retain the ancient Spanish decorum, and a very strong feeling for the Roman catholic church. The churches are at least as well attended as the theatres; and the buffoonery of actors is restrained, by public feeling, from passing into any thing profane or indecent.

The third feature in the Mexican character, with which we shall conclude, is the humanity and kindly feeling of all classes; which operates so favourably upon their frequent revolutions, that these outbreaks are scarcely ever attended with any sanguinary excesses. The president of the year is generally surprised and taken in his palace by some mutinous regiment, led on by his rival; he either capitulates, or is allowed to make his escape, and the new revolutionary leader is installed president in his place. The ex-president then retires to one of the provinces, collects a new force, and attacks his rival in turn. Perhaps one battle is fought, a dozen or more are killed in the conflict, and here the matter ends. Executions by courts martial, or by revolutionary tribunals, are almost unknown; and the punishment of Iturbide, whose private character was very respectable, is, at twenty years' distance, regarded as an act of extraordinary severity.

BABBAGE'S CALCULATING ENGINE, 1822.—It has been the fortune of Mr. Babbage, who sits in Newton's Lucasian chair, to surround himself with fame of a more popular kind than that of his great predecessor, by the project of a calculating engine; being an attempt to reduce arithmetic to the dominion of mechanism, to substitute an automaton for a compositor, and to throw the power of thought into wheel-work. To bring the possibility of such a work within the compass of general belief was no

easy task; but as mathematical men, sufficiently acquainted with the principle upon which it was founded, were convinced of its practicability, the British government, advised by the Royal Society and a committee of eminent engineers, determined on constructing the projected mechanism at the cost of the nation, and to hold it as national property. The machine is yet in its progress towards completion; and its incalculable utility in the production of numerical tables, accurate in every copy, with facility and cheapness, can only be estimated by those whose employments are connected with the various sciences, and above all with navigation and astronomy. Almost every department too of the useful arts, and commerce in all its relations, depends for its full exercise on certain tables, such as have been calculated and printed from the earliest periods of human civilization to the present time, in all countries; whether tables of multiplication (especially what are termed tables of *powers*, in which a number is multiplied by itself successively), of the squares and square roots, and of the cubes and cube roots of numbers, geometrical and trigonometrical tables, with their endless varieties of natural sines, co-sines, tangents, secants, together with tables of the higher powers of these immediate functions, and tables of logarithms. Then again tables of interest, discount, and exchange; tables of annuities, and others necessary in life-insurances; and tables of rates of various kinds, necessary in general commerce. Without the aid of accurately calculated tables, some of them exclusively astronomical, no ship could pursue her course on the ocean without danger of wreck,—tables of the sun's position of centre, of his right ascension and declination—of the moon's place for every hour, together with her change of declination for every ten minutes; and the same as respects the planets and fixed stars.

MURDER OF MR. WEARE, 1823.—Few domestic events have made a greater impression for the time on

the public mind than this murder in 1823, and the case of Mr. Fauntleroy, in the following year. The body of a professed gambler, named Weare, was found in a pond near Elstree, Herts, with marks of violence upon it; and as the person in question had recently won a large sum of money from one of his own fraternity, named Thurtell, the latter was arraigned for the murder, and after one of the most interesting trials on record before Mr. Justice Park, was found guilty and executed. It was clearly, though principally with circumstantial evidence, shown, that Thurtell had villainously decoyed his friend into Gill's-hill-lane, a solitary place in the parish of Aldenham, and there assassinated him.

SPANISH SOUTH AMERICA INDEPENDENT, 1824. — From what has been said of Brazil, it will be easily understood how these colonies could one by one assert their freedom. The Caraccas in 1810, and Venezuela in 1811 (now portions of Columbia), led the way; and various contests arose in the respective states, before the form of government could be settled. Bolivar, an active general, settled the division of COLUMBIA, and was named dictator: he also liberated PERU, the ancient seat of the Incas, and the people have called Upper Peru 'Bolivia,' in his honour. [The coast of Peru is covered with a substance called *guano*, now discovered to be the excrement of sea birds. Without the use of it as manure, no produce, where the soil is volcanic or sandy, could be raised. So careful for man, so bountiful is Divine Providence!] CHILI is the third important republic, containing valuable gold and copper mines in its long and narrow tract of land; and LA PLATA the fourth, reaching nearly across the continent, from the Andes to the Atlantic, and having considerable plains, called *pampas*, covered with luxuriant herbage, on which vast herds of cattle are continually grazing. La Plata was first discovered by Joao de Solis, a Portuguese,

1515; and its name was given it by a subsequent navigator, Gabato, who supposed the silver plate brought to him in quantities at the port, to be from the mines of the country, though it was from Peru. La Plata is now called by diplomatists 'The Argentine Republic.' The Guachos, of Spanish origin, and a few tribes of Indians, are the only inhabitants of the *pampas*. They subsist exclusively by hunting, and scorn the comforts of civilization. The Guacho, far too proud to labour, thinks himself born to roam his country carried by the swiftest steeds, and displays his prowess in conflicts with the lion and other beasts of the forest. Cradled in a bullock's hide, his earliest plaything is a knife; and at four years, his glory is the saddle. Inured to every change and severity of weather, constantly in exercise, and living upon beef and water, he grows to manhood with a frame of iron. Sir Francis Head, who tried the Guacho's life, at length rode 153 miles in 14 hours without any important fatigue. 'The traveller of the *pampas*,' says sir Francis, 'must throw himself completely on the feeble resources of the country, and live on little else than beef and water. When I first crossed them, I went with a carriage; and though I had been accustomed to riding all my life, I could not at all ride with the peons. Having galloped for five or six hours, I was obliged to get into the vehicle; but after I had been riding for three or four months, I found myself in a condition, which I can only describe by saying, that I felt as if no exertion could kill me.' The geological peculiarities of the *pampas* are worthy note; being plains which have evidently been brought up from the sea. Like the plains of Patagonia, having the same origin, they are still covered with recent marine shells; to account for which it is necessary to attend to what modern geology advances as a truth. Certain spaces on the globe have been alternately sea, then land—then estuary—then sea again—and

once more habitable land ; having remained in each of these states for considerable periods. On the other hand, there is no evidence, from human experience, of a lowering of the sea's level in any region. The waters of the ocean cannot sink in one place, without their level being depressed everywhere throughout the globe. In those seas where circular coral islands abound, there is a slow and continued sinking of the submarine mountains on which these masses of coral are based ; while in other areas of the South Sea, where coral is found above the sea level, and in inland situations, and where there are no circular or barrier reefs, the land is on the rise. ' It would require,' says Mr. Lyell, ' a volume to explain the various phenomena which confirm the reality of movements of land, whether of elevation or depression, whether accompanied by earthquakes, or accomplished slowly, and without local disturbance.' PARAGUAY, the fifth state, was till recently despotically ruled by one Dr. Francia, of whom extraordinary tales have been told. This singular personage, who reigned with more despotic tyranny than Eastern sultans, cutting off heads at pleasure, and without question, was of French parentage. He was educated for the law at Cordova ; and when Paraguay had established its independence (against Buenos Ayres especially), a triumvirate government was established, of which don Gaspar de Francia was secretary. The form of rule being soon made consular, Francia and don Fulgençio Yegros were chosen consuls for one year ; and the new officers took their posts in the senate-house, where two curule chairs had been provided, respectively inscribed with the names of Cæsar and Pompey. Francia at once sat down upon Cæsar, leaving Pompey to Yegros ; and having thus obtained one-half the power he aimed at, he was not long ere he secured the other, and was elected sole dictator of the republic of Paraguay. His nomination in the first instance was

for three years ; but at the expiration of that period, he took care to have his power confirmed for life. Stern as Francia's sway has been, the country subjected to it has escaped thereby a thousand evils to which the other Spanish colonies have been exposed during the same period ; and on the death of the dictator, 1840, at the age of 82, it was observable that Paraguay had made more progress in *settling down*, than any of the other Spanish revolted provinces of South America. URUGUAY is a petty independent state, near to Paraguay and Buenos Ayres ; and its first president, general Riveira, died Sept. 1841. GUIANA, on the south-east coast, is divided among the English, the Dutch, and the French ; and PATAGONIA, in the south, is inhabited by aboriginal tribes, remarkably tall and strong in person. TERRA DEL FUEGO, an island at the southern point of South America, separated by the Strait of Magellan from the main continent, is well known as the land of storms. Few ships have ever passed it without observing the forked lightning playing upon its cliffs, and hearing the most terrific thunders roll. For centuries the spot was believed to be uninhabited, or possessed by a scanty people of squalid and dwarfish appearance ; but in 1827, captain Fitzroy brought four of the natives to England, youths of a good height and shape, educated them to a certain extent, and (one having died of the small-pox) carried back the three to the island, 1830. The issue was apparently disastrous to the cultivated trio ; who were disowned by their ignorant parents, regarded as altered by the wicked white men to devils, and threatened with destruction. The Spanish colony of Mexico, in North America, revolted with its southern neighbours ; and in 1822, an enterprising leader, named Iturbide, was elected emperor. A counter-revolution, however, expelled him, and he was shot on landing (*see* p. 275) at Soto la Marina. Mexico is now a federative republic ; and

GUATIMALA, north of **Darien**, has separated from it, and assumed the title of Central America; while the small province of **YUCATAN** has (1841) in like manner divided from it, and published its declaration of rights and independence. **TEXAS**, another Mexican district, has also recently asserted its independence as a republic.

The constant revolutions in these self-emancipated states, some of them having changed their governments six times in a year, afford memorable examples of the practical working of the principles of liberalism and anarchy. Most of them, proclaiming their indifference to religion, offer willingly to receive the traitors and felonious refugees of every other state in the world. They consequently exhibit the spectacle of countries, possessing the finest climates, and abounding in all natural resources, rendered uninhabitable by civilized man. There is protection neither for person nor property. No man can travel in safety, or even remain in his house with any security; the respective states being covered with robbers, and the ruffians and brigands of the two ever-contending parties in each, making night attacks upon the dwellings of one another. All lucrative trade with such countries is out of the question: there is no law to enforce the payment of debts and fulfilment of contracts. It is perhaps another cause of the decline of trade (1841) throughout Europe, that the South American market is also shut against us as well as the North: the latter will most likely be but a temporary suspension, since its own state of monetary affairs is the cause; but the former is the sheer consequence of anarchy, to which no termination can for years be hoped.

EXPEDITION TO THE NORTH POLE, 1824.—Various attempts have been made to discover whether or not a north-west passage exists from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, the earliest in 1607; but the first expe-

dition fitted out by our government was that of 1773, conducted by captain Phipps. As no success had attended any, the matter was abandoned for nearly half a century; when in 1818, two parties were sent out, one under captain John Ross, and the other under captain Buchan, which were alike unproductive of the desired information. Captain Parry next ventured upon similar expeditions, 1819, 1821, and 1824. It is needless to say that neither of these voyages was attended with better success. Captain (subsequently sir William Edward) Parry, in 1824, was in the *Hecla*, and accompanied by the *Fury*, commanded by lieutenant Hoppner. By the end of September the ships had got to the entrance of Prince Regent's Inlet, in the full hopes of a secure winter-harbour, and of a successful progress in the spring. The winter was now fast setting in; and on reaching Fort Bower, the vessels became surrounded with what is termed young ice. The winter was a mild one for these arctic regions, the thermometer never exceeding forty-four degrees below zero; whereas in the captain's first voyage, it was at fifty-five. Reading, music, and plays, formed the chief in-door amusements, and a masquerade was got up once a fortnight, on board one or other of the ships: in the day, bear-hunting kept the men in exercise, while grouse were so abundant, as to give plenty of sport to the officers, and food to the men. During this period, the title of a newspaper could be barely read at noon-day on deck, so dense and gloomy was the atmosphere; but as the spring of 1825 advanced, the light so much increased as to allow of excursions in every direction, during which very curious specimens of animal, vegetable, and mineral productions were collected. The summer began on the 6th of June, and the ice thawed sufficiently to enable the vessels to leave Fort Bower; but in attempting to explore the coast in a southward direction, the *Fury* was

destroyed by an ice-berg, so that the *Hecla* made the best of her way to England, with the crews of both ships. On the subject of magnetic attraction, some valuable discoveries were made in this expedition; and it was satisfactorily proved that, in proportion to the degree of heat which the human body had by various means acquired (especially by the warm-bath), the longer it could remain exposed to the severity of cold without injury. Amongst a multitude of observations connected with natural philosophy, the vast celerity with which sound travels in these regions may be noticed; the ordinary pitch of the human voice being often distinctly heard at the distance of two miles from the speaker.

EXECUTION OF MR. FAUNTLEROY, 1824.—He was a member of a banking-house in London, and had committed forgeries to a vast extent on the bank of England. The public appeared to take an unusual interest in his case; and perhaps his resigned demeanour throughout his trial, and during the awful preparations for his ignominious death, occasioned a feeling towards him, which, in a great commercial country, could scarcely be indulged without injury to the community. Fauntleroy found himself a partner in an insolvent banking-house, and resolved to prevent its fall; but he did not see that the honest would have answered his purpose better than an opposite course. He was well educated, and moreover was not driven by hunger and nakedness to the commission of crime; but was tempted to it by pride, and a false notion of station. All will do well, and the young more especially, to bear in mind one of the last observations of this unhappy man. 'It was natural for me,' said he, 'to wish to pass through life with credit, and to maintain the position of my father; but I sought the honour of men, and a poor, unsatisfactory bauble it is. To acquire estimation and reputation here, we must become subservient, and conform to a world wholly

made up of error. The pride of winning a few little months' esteem from mortals has overthrown me.'

DEATH OF THE KING AND QUEEN OF THE SANDWICH ISLES, 1824.—In the summer of this year these personages arrived in England from Owhyhee, accompanied by many semi-barbaric official characters, and were greatly delighted with all they saw in London. Before, however, they could be presented at court, both the king and queen were seized with measles; and death soon put a period to their existence. Their remains, after lying some time in St. Martin's church, were sent back for interment to their native land.

NEW LONDON BRIDGE.—This fine edifice was commenced 1824, Mr. Rennie being the architect. The contract for building was 506,000*l.*, not to include the formation of arched approaches, nor the expense of removing the old bridge; and the work was completed and opened to the public by king William, August 1, 1831. The bridge is of Haytor granite, and has five noble arches.

FINAL CESSION OF THE ISLE OF MAN TO THE BRITISH CROWN, 1825.—We have in vol. i. p. 652, given a brief sketch of the history of this isle of the Irish sea, the *Moná* of the Greeks, so called from its insulated situation, *monos*. It lies nearly at an equal distance from the English and Irish coasts; the space from Douglas to Liverpool being sixty miles, and that from the Calf of Man (as an islet at the south of Man is called) to Dublin, also sixty. The population is about 45,000. The isle is about thirty miles long, varying from eight to twelve in breadth; and about eighty in circumference. The civil government is vested in a governor for the crown, lieutenant-governor, a council of ten principal officers, and the house of Keys, consisting of twenty-four constitutional representatives of the people; these estates together forming the court of Tynwald, by which all public laws are enacted and promulgated. The

twenty-four members of the Keys are the principal proprietors of land ; and their house is supposed to have obtained its name from interpreting in all cases the common law ; and to it lies an appeal from the inferior law-courts, and in all cases of disputed titles to landed property, and then only to the king in council. The three estates may enact, abolish, or revive, all insular laws ; but before they can be enforced, they must be confirmed by the king, and proclaimed in the Manx and English languages in presence of the people assembled at the Tynwald hill. The two, deemsters are officers of very extensive jurisdiction, and of high authority, being chief justices of the island ; the one presiding over the northern part, keeps his courts at Ramsey ; and the other over the southern division, at Douglas. The laws of Man still retain much of their ancient peculiarity of character, though modified by occasional acts of Tynwald, and in some respects rendered more in unison with those of England. The common law was formerly administered by the deemsters and keys ; who, under the lord proprietor, governed the island by a 'jus non scriptum,' committed to their loyalty and fidelity as a sacred trust, and by them orally communicated to posterity. Hence the Manks, from the remotest period of antiquity, designated their common law by the name of 'Breast Laws ;' from their being deposited in the breasts of the deemsters and keys, and only on important occasions divulged to the people. By an act of Tynwald, in 1777, and subsequently, by the 57th of George III., the code now in general use was revised ; the institution of the grand jury differing from that of England only in the additional benefit of receiving evidence on the part of the accused, which enables them with more certainty to decide upon the finding of a bill.

The feudal tenure by which the tenants held their land in villainage, at the absolute will of the king of

Man, or lord-proprietor of the soil, in process of time gave way to a more liberal tenure, called 'holding by the straw,' similar to the ancient tenure of the verge in England. At length the tenants became not only ascriptive to the soil, but acquired permanent estates in land, descendible from ancestor to heir in the nature of free socage. But there are no statutes declaratory of the settled mode of descent, or of the alienation of lands, prior to the act of Tynwald, 1645 ; but all statutes concerning lands gave way to the celebrated 'Act of Settlement,' which is emphatically designated the 'Manks' Magna Charta,' in the year 1704. By this act, the purchaser of a farm, or other real property, may alienate or devise his estate ; and by the common law, such property, after one descent from the purchaser, becomes an absolute estate of inheritance, passing by customary descent.

The military establishment of the island consists generally, of one or two companies of regular troops detached from regiments in England, stationed at Castletown, for manning the garrisons, and for the defence of the coast, under command of the governor. Each of the parishes furnishes four men on horseback, armed with a sabre and a pike, under a captain appointed by the governor, called the captain of the parish ; with powers similar to those of the high-bailiffs of the four towns, for the preservation of the peace. The four towns are Castletown, Douglas, Peel, and Ramsey ; and of these, Douglas is by far the largest, most populous, and most commercial, containing 7000 inhabitants.

The see of Man was originally established in the ninth century, by pope Gregory IV., in the small village of Sodor, in Iona, or St. Columb's isle, corruptly called Icolmkill, a small island of the Hebrides. In 1098, Magnus, king of Norway, having by conquest obtained possession of those islands, and of the isle of Man, united them under one bi-

shop ; under whose jurisdiction they continued till 1833, when the English took possession of the isle of Man. Since that period, though the bishop has maintained no claim to the see of Sodor, he has retained the ancient title of 'Sodor and Man ;' and he enjoys all the dignities and spiritual rights of other bishops, with the exception of having a vote in the house of peers, in which, by courtesy only, he has a scat, the see not being a barony. The ecclesiastical government is vested in a bishop, (under the archbishop of York), archdeacon, two vicars-general, an episcopal registrar, and three other officers. The total average annual income of benefices in Man is 3727*l.* gross, and 3625*l.* net ; and the amount of stipends paid annually to curates is 211*l.* The annual value of the bishopric is somewhat over 2000*l.* ; and it was recently proposed, during the Whig administration, to merge it in one of the English sees. The arrangement, however, was happily abandoned, and so ill a compliment to the memory of bishop Wilson, and its other excellent prelates, avoided. The service in the churches of its seventeen parishes is performed alternately in the Manx and English languages.

The prevailing mode of agriculture in Man is to crop successively with potatoes or turnips, barley, clover, oats or wheat, and peas. Barley and oats are more grown than other grain ; turnips are most abundant, so are flax, and all sorts of grapes. The native breed of sheep is very small and hardy ; the mutton is excellent, but the wool is of an indifferent quality. In the lowlands, a larger breed has been introduced ; besides which there is another, called Laughton, having wool of a light brown colour, highly esteemed in the manufacture of cloth. The native breed of horses is of a small kind, but hardy and useful ; that of horned cattle has degenerated from neglect, but the farmers have lately endeavoured to improve it by the introduction of the

Dunlop and short-horned cattle. The operations of husbandry are frequently retarded, and the agriculture somewhat injured, by the herring-fishery, in which so many men are employed during the summer and autumn. The land is chiefly divided into farms containing from 50 to 200 acres ; and the enclosures are mostly from 4 to 10 acres in extent.

The lead and copper mines are extensive ; and the lead ore yields from 60 to 200 ounces of silver per ton. There are also quarries of limestone and slate, especially of a tough clay slate, which is raised in large blocks, that are occasionally substituted for timber, and used as gate-posts, small bridges, and other purposes. The herring-fishery employs about 300 boats from July to November ; and the number of fish cured averages from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 annually. Of the race of tailless cats we have before spoken. The commerce of Man is considerable ; and the customs received at Douglas annually, is about 24,000*l.* With some trifling exceptions, the exportation is confined to goods that are the produce or manufacture of the island, on which no export duty is paid ; and every thing imported from England is free of customs. The manufacture of sheeting linen, towelling, sail-cloth, and sack-cloth, was introduced about the beginning of the present century, when flax-mills were erected ; and about the same period the woollen manufacture was established. There are also extensive breweries, paper-mills, tanneries, (chiefly for the Manx hides and skins,) candle and soap manufactories, and various others, which the freedom from the excise duties tends greatly to encourage.

The isle of Man is naturally divided into two unequal parts, by a mountainous ridge reaching from North Barrule at the northern extremity, to South Barrule at the southern. It is geographically divided into six sheadings or provinces. The rocky islet called the Calf of Man, the largest of numerous similar de-

tached spots, is five miles in circumference; and on the western side, the cliffs rise in perpendicular masses to the height of 400 feet, whence are visible the Welsh, Scotch, and Irish mountains. Man, from its situation directly in the mouth of the channel, is very beneficial to Britain, by lessening the force of the tides; which would otherwise break with far greater violence upon the latter than they do at present. It is frequently exposed to very high winds; and at other times to mists. The soil towards the north is dry and sandy, and therefore unfertile, but not unimprovable; the mountains, which include nearly two-thirds of the island, are bleak and barren, yet afford excellent peat, and contain several kinds of metal. They maintain also a kind of small swine, called purre, which are esteemed excellent pork. In the valleys there is as good pasture, hay, and corn, as in any of our northern counties; and the southern part of the island is as fine soil as can be wished. The Manks have rabbits and hares very fat and fine; tame and wild fowl in great plenty; and in their high mountains they have one airy of eagles, and two of excellent hawks. Their rivulets furnish them with salmon, trout, eels, and other kinds of fresh-water fish; on their coasts are caught cod, turbot, ling, halibut, all sorts of shell-fish, and herrings. A judicious system of turnip culture has recently been introduced into the Calf, which will soon make this desolate spot productive. The Calf is at present inhabited alone by the manager of the light-house constructed thereon, who farms the land as well as he can. The islet abounds at one time of the year with puffins, and also with a species of ducks and drakes, by the English called barnacles, and by the Scots Soland geese.

The Manx language is the old British, mingled with Norse, or Norwegian, and modern English. Man abounds in Danish remains. The various tumuli, barrows, weapons, coins, and Runic characters, afford

clear evidence of the connexion which the northmen had with this island. Some Druidical temples have been discovered. The venerable remains of Rushen Abbey, which belonged to the Cistercian order, and another near Douglas for female votaries, supposed to have been founded by St. Bridget, show the influence of the church during the middle ages. The tumult at Tynwald (situated near the intersection of the high road from Castletown to Ramsay with that from Douglas to Peel), which is approached by turf steps on the east, presents the appearance of a truncated cone divided into three stages, which are raised about three feet above each other, and proportionally diminished both in circuit and width until they approach the summit, where the king of Man formerly sat on solemn occasions. The local laws of the island still continue to be read and promulgated here annually before the governor, deemsters, keys, council, and various officers of state; and divine service concludes the solemnities of the day.

The duke of Athol, in the sale of his rights, 1765, for 70,000*l.* to the crown, was still allowed to retain so many privileges (such as all the ecclesiastical patronage, treasure-trove, &c.), that a final purchase of such immunities was made by the government, 1825. The isle since that period (with the exception of its internal management and system of judicature) has been subject, like any other of its provinces, to Great Britain. The inhabitants of Man, though far from being unmixed, were, perhaps till within the course of the present century, more so than any other under the dominion of the English crown, to which they are very proud of being subjects; though, like the inhabitants of Jersey and Guernsey, they have a peculiarity of manners, naturally resulting from a long enjoyment of their own constitution and customs. The Manx tongue is the only one spoken by the common people.

MALACCA MADE AN ENGLISH SET-

TLEMENT, 1825.—This colony is on the Malay peninsula, and extends forty miles along the shore, and thirty inwards. The Malays are descendants of a people who were driven from Sumatra, 1252, soon after which period they built the city of Malacca; but the aborigines of the peninsula are negroes, with jet black skin and woolly hair, like Africans, and some of this race still exist in the mountains, whither the Malays drove their ancestors on landing. In 1511 the Portuguese drove the Malays, under their sultan Mohammed Shah, to the extremity of the peninsula, where he founded the existing principality of Jehore; and they held possession of what is now called Malacca till 1640, when the Dutch drove them out. In 1795 the English expelled the Dutch, but restored their conquest in 1801, recovered it in 1807, again restored it 1815, and in 1825 received it in lieu of their settlements at Sumatra. The coast of Malacca is rocky and barren, with detached islets of cavernous rocks, which the Chinese formerly used as places of sepulture. The interior is mountainous; and the valleys which intervene are abundantly supplied with small streams. Mount Ophir, 4000 feet above the sea, appears to be a solid rock of granite, here and there thinly covered with decayed vegetable soil. The extreme point of the peninsula is a cluster of small islands; the roadstead is safe; and in the south-west monsoon, vessels not drawing more than sixteen feet of water are secure in a harbour under the lee of the fort. The Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca, established 1818 by Drs. Morrison and Milne, has been eminently useful in educating the Malays, and even many Chinese youths, in the principles of Christianity. The staple of Malacca at present is tin, the mines of which produce 250 tons per year. Rice, sugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, cocoa, and spices, all thrive remarkably well, and will hereafter be a source of wealth. Timber for ship-building is

abundant, especially the murbon-tree, equal to teak. Canes and rattans are exported in vast quantities, and the camphor-tree and nutmeg are everywhere wild. There are also gold mines, from which that metal has been obtained in singular purity; but the Malays yet understand too little of mining to derive much advantage from their labour. Malacca, as respects government, is a dependency of Bengal.

SUPPRESSION OF THE JANIZARIES, 1825.—The Turkish sultan, Orchan, formed a body-guard, 1350, out of the captives made during his irruption into the provinces of the Danube; giving them the name of *jenitcheri*, or new soldiers. In time, this guard became an important portion of the Turkish army, and composed the only regular and effective infantry of the empire; being increased in 1800 to 115,000 men, by the annual incorporation of a stated portion of all prisoners of war. The officers of this vast force had of late years been men of wealth and enterprise: Mahmud II. himself owed his throne to their machinations: and that politic sultan, perceiving the influence of the corps to resemble that of the old Roman prætorian cohorts, resolved, with the advice of his favourite minister, Halet Effendi, to suppress it with all speed. Accordingly, in 1825, officers from the army of Mehemet Ali, of Egypt, his ambitious pacha, were chosen to instruct the men in what was believed to be an ancient system of Mohammedan tactics. No opposition was made at first to the innovation; but the moment the object was apprehended, the voice of mutiny sounded loud and fiercely, and a rebellion ensued. The janizaries assembled in the square of the Etmairdan, in Constantinople, reversed their soup-kettles (according to their custom in such cases), and invoking their tutelary saint, Hadji Bektash, began plundering the houses of their enemies. But the cannoniers and guards of the seraglio were prepared: the sultan himself, with the mufti and

ulemars, assembled in the mosque of Ahmed, and pronounced an eternal curse on the corps. The sacred standard was unfurled; and a general attack on the devoted soldiery began. The janizaries, cooped up in the narrow streets, were mown down by grape-shot; and the rest were despatched by the muskets and yataghans of their enemies, or burned in their barracks. The issue was that 20,000 fell: and Mahmud was at once stamped with a character of fearless and intrepid energy. The resolute moslim even went so far as to order the desecration of the tombs of the corps. These were always distinguished by a characteristic turban, sculptured in marble: the turban was struck off and left on the ground, where, half buried by the long grass, it was to remain an imperishable witness of the disgrace of the sleeper beneath—'a disgrace (observes Miss Pardoe) whose depth of ignominy can only be understood in a country where the dead are objects of peculiar veneration.'

EQUALIZATION OF BRITISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, 1826.—The act which effected this important measure, constitutes the imperial gallon, whether of beer, wine, or corn, 277.274 cubic inches; and the imperial bushel 2218.192 cubic inches. The following notes may be found useful. A cubic foot of water weighs 1000 oz. avoirdupois. The pound troy (for gold, silver, &c.) has 12 oz., or 5760 grains. The pound avoirdupois (for meat, grocery, and heavy goods, including common metals) has 16 oz. or 7000 grains, being 1240 grains heavier than the pound troy. The pound in apothecaries' weight is the same as that of troy; and druggists mix their medicines by troy, but buy and sell them by avoirdupois. A mile is 1760 yards; and $69\frac{1}{4}$ such miles make a degree. An acre contains 4840 square yards. A firkin of butter, 56 lbs.; a firkin of soap, 64 lbs.; a barrel of beer, 36 gallons; a barrel of anchovies, 30 lbs.; a barrel of raisins, 112 lbs.; a fother of lead,

2184 lbs.; a stone of iron, 14 lbs.; a stone of butchers' meat, 8 lbs.; a stone of glass, 5 lbs.; a stone of cheese, 16 lbs.; a gallon of sperm oil, 9 lbs.; a peck of salt, 14 lbs.; a chest of tea averages 84 lbs.; a bag of rice, 168 lbs.; a sack of coals, 224 lbs.; a ton of coals, 10 sacks; a London chaldron of coals, 12 sacks; a hogshead of beer, 54 gallons; a butt of beer, 3 hogsheads; a hogshead of wine, 63 gallons; a pipe of wine, 2 hogsheads; a tun of wine, 252 gallons; a tun of oil, 250 gallons. In square measure, length and breadth only are considered, and the square of a number is produced by multiplying that number into itself: thus, 36 is a square number, being produced by multiplying the number 6 into itself. Square measure estimates all kinds of superficies, such as land, paving, tiling. Cubic measure takes length, breadth, and thickness. A cube number is produced by multiplying any number twice into itself: thus, 216 is a cube number, and is produced by multiplying the number 6 twice into itself. *Abstract Measures*: an ounce avoirdupois, 16 drams; an ounce apothecary, 8 drams; a scruple, 20 grains; a pint, 16 fluid ounces; a fluid ounce, 8 fluid drams; a fluid dram, 60 minims, or regulated drops of the apothecary. The yard being 36 inches, 3 quarters of such a yard make a Flemish ell, 5 an English, and 6 a French ell; a pole, $5\frac{1}{2}$ yards; a furlong, 40 poles; a mile, 8 furlongs. A bushel, 4 pecks; a quarter, 8 bushels; a gross, 12 dozen; a great gross, 144 dozen; a score, 20 articles; a great hundred, 6 score; a quire, 24 sheets; a ream, 20 quires; a printer's ream, $21\frac{1}{2}$ quires; a bundle, 2 reams; a roll, 12 skins of parchment. A hide (of land), in old English measurement, was 100 acres; and 5 hides made a knight's fee: there were 243,600 hides only of cultivated, or reclaimed, land in England, at the Norman conquest.

THE FIRST TEMPERANCE SOCIETY was established in the United States of America, 1826, to induce the

labouring classes to abandon the injurious practice of spirit-drinking. Similar societies have since sprung up in England, having in view a reform, not only amongst the working population, but their masters; and, notwithstanding the ridicule which has been cast upon them, they have at least effected somewhat of their object with the former. It is an ascertained fact that the least exhausted by fatigue, the most cheerful at the close of the day, and the most invigorated when the morning returns, are those labourers who have made no use of distilled spirit, save as a needful medicine. The term *teetotalism*, as applied to abstinence from spirit-drinking, is of American origin, and is affirmed to have arisen from the circumstance of a stammering orator exclaiming, when it was put to the vote at the first society's first meeting at Boston, whether *partial* or *total* abstinence should be required of the members, 'I vote for t-t-t-total abstinence.'

As respects the intemperance of classes higher than the labouring portion of civilized countries, that is, we are inclined to suspect, beyond the remedy of temperance societies. There is something wrong in things, when we see multitudes compelled to earn subsistence for themselves and their families at the expense of a toil of both body and mind, destructive to the spirits and ruinous to the health. Such depression of the vital energies causes stimulants to be resorted to as things necessary; and the continuance of anxious struggles, painful forethought, and feverish competition, extends the stimulant into the draught of intemperance, and makes intemperance a habit. The whole of civilized life should not be spent in drudgery for the supply of animal wants; and insanity is fully proved to be most frequent in countries where the intellect is over-taxed for that purpose. Thus while Scotland, England, Prussia, and France give an average return of one insane person in 900, Russia has not one

in 20,000, Spain as few, Persia and Hindustan scarcely any, and Turkey and China none at all. The talented Abernethy held that the rapid increase of nervous disorders in England was mainly attributable to 'the fidgetting and discontenting themselves of people about things which cannot be helped, and the pressing of worldly cares from the difficulty of knowing how to get a livelihood, and then the recourse to *stimulants*, with the foolish notion of thereby driving away care.' For all these malignant evils the remedy must be applied to society itself. Let the political economist point out how the means of living are to be obtained at less cost both mental and corporeal—and the intemperance of a large portion of the community will necessarily cease. Let him reflect also upon the evil resulting from the inclination of the present day to legislate on petty matters. Such a course the historian will easily prove to him to be an unlikely means of securing either a frank, or honest, or happy laborious class, or, what was formerly England's pride and boast, 'a bold and simple-hearted and noble-spirited peasantry.' The moderate use of all things really good is always allowable, and sometimes a duty. Wine, opium, mercury, are so many gifts of a bountiful Providence to man: if he *abuse* them, that is man's fault and sin—it is no argument against their *use*. Moderation in things allowed, is a greater virtue than abstinence: nay, we question if the latter be a virtue at all,—it is but the other extreme of excess, and equally a vice. Virtue, in ethics, is the exact medium between those two extremes.

THE INSOLVENT LAWS CONSOLIDATED, 1827.—The general object of these laws, which originated 1743, is to release the debtor from prison, and sometimes from debts, persons whose transactions have not been of such a nature as to subject them to the bankrupt laws. These statutes have been passed for a limited time only, and have been continued by

subsequent enactments. The Insolvent Law of England was consolidated by the 7th George IV., c. 57, continued by the 1st William IV., c. 38, and since by annual statutes for one year. It is now somewhat modified by 1 and 2 Victoria, c. 110. The law is administered by commissioners appointed by the crown, in a court called the 'Insolvent Debtors' Court;' and three of the commissioners from time to time make circuits, and give their attendance at the assize-towns, or other places where prisoners may be ordered to appear. By 1 and 2 Victoria, c. 110, no person shall be arrested upon mesne process in any civil action, except in certain cases specially provided for by the act. A person who is in prison, charged in execution for any debt or damages, or otherwise committed, as mentioned in the act, may, within fourteen days after the commencement of the imprisonment, petition the court for his discharge, in the manner prescribed by the act; and he must, in such petition, state his willingness that all his real and personal estate and effects shall vest in the provisional assignee of insolvent debtors' estates; and if within twenty-one days after the like time he does not make satisfaction to the creditor at whose suit he is so charged or committed, such creditor (or other person mentioned in the act) may petition the court for an order, vesting all the real and personal estate of the prisoner in such provisional assignee. When such petition has been filed, and the court has made the order above referred to, all the prisoner's real and personal estate, and every thing which he may in any way acquire before his final discharge, is vested in the provisional assignee, by virtue of such order when recorded, except the wearing apparel, tools, &c. of the debtor, not exceeding in the whole 20*l.* in value. The prisoner must also file a schedule of all debts owing by him, and of all his property. The court has power to appoint assignees for the management

of the insolvent's estate; and, on such assignees assenting to the appointment, all the estate of the insolvent, which was vested in the provisional assignee, becomes immediately vested in such assignees, for the payment of the prisoner's debts. After the court shall have adjudged the discharge of the insolvent, he is not liable to imprisonment for any debt in respect of which the adjudication was made. But any property which he may acquire subsequently to his discharge, may be taken in execution, under the provisions of the act, for the payment of his unsatisfied debts; and if the property be of such a nature that it cannot be taken in execution, the court may imprison the insolvent, till he conveys such property as the court may direct for the general benefit of his creditors. In cases where it is proved that the insolvent has fraudulently made away with his property, or that his debts were fraudulently contracted, the court does not discharge his person immediately, but has power to order him to be imprisoned for a period not exceeding three years from the date of his petition to the court for his discharge.

The question of imprisonment for debt is enveloped in so much of passion, that notwithstanding all that has been done, and is still doing, to amend the law, many years will probably pass away before it is put upon a reasonable and just footing. The ancient European law of debtor and creditor was openly and avowedly founded on the principle of vengeance; and the insolvent was placed at the disposition of his creditor, to be dealt with according to his pleasure. But we all must agree in repudiating vengeance as a legitimate end of jurisprudence; and in regarding all penal inflictions, which either miss or pass the object of preventing crime, and maintaining public order, as so much gratuitous evil, equally mischievous and cruel. That imprisonment for debt is an insufficient means of correcting abuses of credit in England,

is proved by the quick succession of abortive insolvent-acts, that have been promulgated : it can only operate in cases where debt is incurred with the full consciousness of an utter inability to discharge the contracted engagement — and then it is only problematical that the dread of confinement may operate as a restraint on the profligate and imprudent. The possibility of curbing this really vicious conduct by a general and sweeping provision, applicable indiscriminately to all debtors, is too doubtful, not to supersede any advantage to be expected from the attempt. The object which the creditor seeks in invoking the intervention of law—the matter of his claim—is the value which he has intrusted to the good faith of his debtor. The payment of his debt is the specific redress he demands ; and all legislation which goes not by the shortest means to this end, is at once unjust and absurd : it is a realization of the scripture parable of giving a stone to him whose petition is for bread. The motives which induce a debtor to withhold the payment of a just debt, resolve themselves into the two cases of inability, and of fraud. In the former case, the inutility and the cruelty of imprisonment are so obvious, that they need not be dwelt upon. Not only is the infliction an unwarrantable aggravation of inevitable misfortune, but it is a direct impediment upon the future industry of the debtor, upon which alone the creditor is dependant for a chance of payment. In the case of fraud, a simple incarceration is inadequate to its purpose, whenever the debtor wishes to speculate on the pertinacity of his creditor, or prefers detention to immediate payment. It is a mockery of the injured to rest contented with securing the person of the debtor, while he is left in undisturbed possession of a power to withhold the sums for which he is subjected to incarceration. The only ground upon which a preliminary arrest is justifiable, is to prevent the

flight of the debtor with the property in his possession : it stands, therefore, upon the same footing as arrest in criminal matters, and it should be followed by the same consequence of an immediate appearance before a magistrate, and a decision on the case.

As respects the insolvency brought on by the incurring of debts without any means or intention to pay, and for which incarceration is perhaps the just punishment, every reasoner worthy of the name must lift up his voice against the culprit. No man can, without passing purgatorial torments, become callous to the demand for payment. It turns the whole of life into a scene of misery and mortification, and makes its entire business and action a series of sacrifices, shifts, and subterfuges. Home itself, the last refuge of virtue and peace—the home that has lost its independence—that is not protected from the intrusive step and contemptuous tone of the unsatisfied creditor—has lost its charm. It is no longer a sanctuary ; and thousands who have thus been forced from under its roof, have continued to go down in character and self-respect, in virtue and in hope, until death, and often worse than death, has been at length their portion.

CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION GRANTED, 1829.—When the ‘corporation’ and ‘test’ acts had been repealed in 1828, in order to afford dissenters from English communion a release from the disabilities imposed on them (for the maintenance of the church’s privileges) at different periods, nothing beyond those political restraints remained, which, when fears generally prevailed of catholic ascendancy, had from time to time been placed upon all professing an adherence to the church of Rome. The latter penal laws had not only interdicted to Romanists the enjoyment of their civil immunities, but even the free disposal of their property ; and they would have been removed by the celebrated Mr. Pitt, during his pre-

miership, had not the then rapidly rising influence of the evangelical party in the English church, prevented the carrying of such a measure. Dissenters from the communion of the church of England, however, having, as above said, been put almost on a par in point of privilege with churchmen, whereby Socinians, and other sectaries, scarcely to be denominated Christian, had been pronounced eligible to seats in parliament and to state-office, it was impossible that Romanists, whom even the church of England acknowledges to be in catholicity, should longer continue shorn of their rights as Britons. A bill was accordingly brought into parliament, 1829, by the duke of Wellington and sir Robert Peel, which passed both houses, whereby a full permission was granted to all British subjects holding the tenets of the church of Rome, to exercise their religion, and to participate in the common privileges of Englishmen.

We have said that the church of England acknowledges the sincere Romanist to be in catholicity: in proof of this assertion, it is perhaps not generally known that she admits, without re-ordination, to be partakers of all the rights of her own clergy, such as, having been appointed to the priest's office by papal authority, shall have merely publicly, according to a set form, recanted their supererogatory tenets—for the offensive opinions of the Romish church are mostly only superadded and supererogatory to those of the church of England. Political considerations have helped to maintain the feud between the two churches; and there were times, long gone by, when protestants in England did well to regard with suspicion their Romanist brethren. But it is to the great credit of the catholic nobility and gentry of this kingdom, that they have, on every occasion of popular excitement during nearly a century, notwithstanding their galling shackles, set an admirable example of loyalty to their king; while, in

the great subscriptions raised in periods of public distress, their munificence has been as prominent as that of any other class in the state. We must allow the English catholics all this praise; and there is one rule of conduct which, in a Christian point of view, ought to be strictly observed by us towards them—that of giving them the same credit for veracity, that we allow to others who differ, in points of religious faith, from us. It is the fashion, for instance, to affirm that the promise even on oath of a Romanist is valueless, because the pope claims the power of annulling such contract. No pope of modern days has ever claimed or admitted such a prerogative; and surely, if we ask a catholic what his creed is, and he repeat the articles of it, there ought to be an end of the matter: *we have no right*, and Christian charity positively forbids us, to say that he believes what he states he does not believe.

As Christians, we may ask, which are the churches that are in catholicity, and whose members, therefore, are brethren? and the reply is, the Eastern (Russian), the Western (Roman), and the church of England. For the three in unity did the excellent protestant bishop Andrews daily pray. We may also inquire, who wrote ~~that~~ almost divine book, the 'De Imitatione Jesu Christi?' Was not the author a so-called catholic? and what Christian man wrote, or did, or said any thing that was good prior to the Reformation, and was not a catholic?

Finally, as Englishmen, we may ask what was the faith of each of our own lineal ancestors three hundred years back? and the answer will be Romanist or Roman catholic; and we should further endeavour to regard our Romanist countrymen as brethren, by reflecting that we are directly descended from them as a church, that we adopt a liturgy, translated almost verbally from their ritual, and lastly, that we advocate

their notions of an apostolical priesthood, invested with the power of absolving sins, and of giving effect to human ceremonies by its consecration and its rank. If our catholic brethren, in return, allow not that our church is in catholicity, that is the sin of their own uncharitableness. The great mass of Romanists, however, begin to wish the subject of catholicity, as respects the three churches, an open question; and if once the matter come to be calmly argued, that, and many other obstacles to Christian unity, will speedily be removed. The eastern church has displayed yet more of this desire to concede for unity's sake.

SWAN RIVER COLONISED, 1829, BY THE ENGLISH.—This settlement is on the west coast of New Holland, and began under the direction of government; captain Stirling being sent out as lieutenant-governor. Western Australia, as Swan River is now called, comprises a fine extent of territory; of which the distinguishing features are three distinct parallel ranges of primitive mountains, bordering on the sea-coast, and running in a north and south direction. These ranges give off several rivers, and on each of these rivers locations have been formed. The town of Freemantle is at the entrance of Swan river; Perth, nine miles inland, on its right or northern bank; and Guildford, seven miles further east; Augusta is at Blackwood's river, near Cape Leuwin; and king George's Sound (which had been occupied by convicts from Sydney) has been recently attached to the Swan river colony. The aborigines are necessarily those whom the settlers have to fear: these attack them at times in a marauding way, and, whenever trusted, betray those who confide in them to the tribe to which they belong. It is alleged that the natives even contemplate, and are sufficiently numerous, to dispossess the settlers; but that, being naturally perfidious, they never can rely on one another enough to effect their object. Since

the earliest discovery of the west coast of New Holland, it has been known to abound in various descriptions of fish. The Malays have carried on, for at least 200 years, an extensive and profitable tripang and tortoise-shell fishery on the north-west coast; and astonishing numbers of whales are observed in the adjacent seas. With regard to soil, Swan-river now produces excellent vegetables of the common kinds; melons and cucumbers thrive wonderfully; the almond-tree does not grow—but the walnut, fig, apple, pear, orange, plum, lemon, guava, hop, peach, and vine do well, and are every year more productive.

CORN LAW ACT PASSED, 1829.

By this enactment, the ancient system of alternate prohibition and unlimited importation (as respects foreign-grown grain) was abolished by general consent of parliament. A constant freedom of importation was henceforth allowed, upon the payment of customs' duties, fluctuating according to the average price of grain; that is, decreasing as the price advanced, and increasing as the price fell. But this plan being remodelled, 1842, the reader is referred to that date.

INCREASE OF ABSENTEEISM.—Towards the close of this reign, considerable complaint was made of the increasing habit adopted by the better English classes, of quitting the mother country for a constant abode on the continent; and the circumstance became a very favourite argument with the advocates of free trade, for carrying out its views so as to check the evil. It is, however, exceedingly doubtful whether there is anything in the free-trade system, and in the comparative cheapness which it is expected to produce, that can lead to the cure of the evil of absenteeism. Every person of observation and experience, who has been abroad, and has thus become personally acquainted with the subject, must know, from what he himself has seen, that these absentees have not been led to fix their residence

abroad, either by the cheapness of provisions or house-rent, but in almost all cases by a wish to escape the greater taxation of this country, and the more expensive habits which the usages of English life require from persons of a certain rank and condition. The three great necessities of common life are certainly food, clothes, and lodging; and when we ascend into the higher ranks of society, or even into the middle stage, a certain establishment of servants and equipage, to say nothing of pictures, plate, furniture, a liberal table, and a costly mode of treating and receiving company, become nearly equally matters of material consideration; and if not strictly necessities of life, they are still so far necessary, that the want of them puts those who are subject to it into circumstances of mortification and humiliation, reducing their consideration among their equals, and, in fact, lowering them in the scale of rank and condition. Thus, it is not because an English gentleman and his family can have more food and clothing, and lodging cheaper, on the continent than they can have them in England, that so many live abroad; but it is because the living abroad removes them from the inspection of their own neighbours at home, and enables them to put up with this foreign food, clothing, and lodging, and to lay down the costly establishments of servants and equipage, which their condition would require of them if living in their own houses, or upon their own estates. In France, for example, there is no occasion for any other carriage, even among persons of condition, than the common cabriolet of the country, and for no other coachman than the gentleman himself, or one of his sons, or perhaps a little scrubby postilion, who may be hired at four pounds a year. In France, there is no occasion for costly liveries, or for a sumptuous service of plate; no occasion indeed for any expensive entertainments, and for that costly mode of living

which is required of such persons in England. In France, an English squire is not expected to become a leading member of a subscription hunt, and still less to expend fifteen hundred pounds a year, by becoming master of the county hounds. In France, he may dispense with a butler at fifty pounds a year; he may put up with half the number of his usual domestics, and may procure that half at less than a fourth part of the expense which it costs him in England. He is not called upon for any public subscriptions to county hospitals, dispensaries, &c.; and if he be a country gentleman, is put to no expense of an open table, and a cellar always running. He may reduce his establishment to any extent he pleases, without incurring the mortification of being regarded by his neighbours as a ruined man, and without losing caste in society. If a colonel or captain in the navy, he may live comfortably and happily in a small house and garden at Tours or Toulouse, and may dispense with an establishment, except such as administers to the comfort and sufficiency of private life. Above all, he pays no expensive taxes to a vast national debt; and gets rid of that large portion of expenditure, which, however it may be required by English habits, belongs rather to the pride and vanity, than to the real comfort and happiness of life. Now, then, how could any reduction in the price of living at home so affect his particular case as to induce him to return? It would doubtless save him so much in the article of provision; but would it save him the necessity of the cost of keeping up a suitable establishment at home? Could it save him any thing in the article of taxes, in the number and wages of his servants, in his equipage, &c.? So long as English habits continue what they are, no saving in the mere articles of provisions can become an object with this class of foreign residents. But, in truth, nothing is more hopeless

than the expectation that the price of living in England can in any way be materially reduced. The national debt, and the establishments of the country, are inflexible matters; they are, to a certain degree, absolutely unyielding; they must always remain the same—and the cost of them must always be borne by persons, in proportion to their rank and condition, and by their consequent mode of living. In the wide circle of professions and large traders, this evil is perhaps well compensated by the greater gains of this class; the necessary cost of their support is insensibly carried into the account of what they may require, and ought to receive, and they are paid liberally, because their condition requires it. Even in the higher classes, such as the landed aristocracy, there is also the same compensation; their rents, as well as their expenditure, are proportionably raised by the effect of the same circumstances. It is therefore in great part an unfair charge against England in particular, that our expenditure is upon a larger scale than in foreign countries; for so also is our opulence, so also are our greater means. But be this as it may, it must be obvious that a reduction in the mere price of provisions could not have the effect of recalling our absentees, because it in no degree meets the cause which has occasioned such absenteeism,—that of the necessity of such persons keeping up those costly establishments at home, which they may dispense with in the privacy and seclusion of a remote foreign residence. There is indeed another view of the subject, which is less favourable to the parties concerned. Such persons either have the means of supporting an establishment at home suitable to their rank and condition, or they have not. If they have not the means, if the unforeseen vicissitudes of life have reduced their fortunes, there is, perhaps, no very strong objection against their submission to the necessity of circumstances: it is natural, and per-

haps reasonable, for them to fly from mortification and embarrassment at home, and to seek comfort and contentment in a more reduced scale of living abroad. But if their means are ample and unimpaired—if they still retain their large estates, or their liberal incomes—their residence abroad becomes then a base and sordid abandonment of their own country, a desertion of their duties to their tenants, their dependents, and their neighbourhood at home, and a most indefensible and un-English preference of foreigners. If they can be brought to consider nothing else, let them, if sojourners in France, reflect upon the consequences they entail upon their children—converting young Englishmen and Englishwomen into that very scum of the earth which unhappily French society exhibits in all its stages; men without religious faith, and women without a particle of English modesty, retirement, or domestic habits and feelings. It has occurred to ourselves, in the mixed intercourse of life, occasionally to encounter young men and women, whose habits have been thus formed during the residence of their families in France; and we have usually found them to be such as to compel us to withdraw ourselves as soon as possible from all further intercourse and acquaintance with them. Indeed the worst part of this foreign residence is its corrupting influence upon our English youth. ‘In Tiberim defluxit Orontes.’ The wholesome stream of English habits, feelings, and morals, becomes poisoned by this infusion of foreign filth; ‘Le jeune France’ is imported into England; and another generation will not pass away, before its consequences will be felt among us.

SIR FELIX BOOTH'S EXPEDITION, 1829.—The government having objected to support another attempt to discover a north-west passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in consequence of the trifling results of the voyage from 1818 to 1824, Mr. Felix

Booth, who had officiated as sheriff of London, with a very laudable spirit of patriotism, equipped the Victory steamer at his own cost, and sent it off under the command of captain Ross, who led the expedition of 1818. As the vessel did not return to England at the appointed period in 1832, captain Back, with a similar outfit raised by private subscription, set out in search of it; but captain Ross reached Hull while the inquiry for him was being prosecuted, October, 1833. No passage had been found; and the only advantage gained by the enterprise was a somewhat better acquaintance with the inlets and headlands of what may be termed the Polar continent. Mr. Booth had the inadequate gratification of knowing that the regions of the morse, the seal, and the Esquimaux, had been dignified with his name, in the various shapes of Boothia, Boothiana, and Point Felix; but king William graciously made the matter better, by creating the noble spirited projector a baronet.

THE INUNDATION OF MORAY, 1829.

—Sir Thomas Dick Lauder has given an interesting account of the flood which visited the counties of Nairne, Elgin, and Banff, in August, 1829, after a summer of unusual drought. It would seem that there were two or three shocks of earthquake, a vivid aurora borealis, windy and boisterous weather, and ultimately a fall of rain partaking of the character of water-spouts; while outbursts of subterranean water took place in the mountains of Breemar, from fissures more than thirty yards in breadth. Mr. Grant was passing the hill of Tomanurth, and observed a quaking of the earth, and then the spouting forth of an immense column of water, which tossed around vast quantities of gravel, sometimes ceased, and again burst out, like a geyser, with renewed energy; tearing up whole banks of earth, and hurling them to the distance of 300 yards. The water was quite transparent, and had so much the appearance of boiling, that Mr.

Grant at first imagined it must be warm. A few instances of the devastation this inundation occasioned will best illustrate so remarkable an occurrence. The river Dorback suddenly swelling destroyed many farms, carrying away thirty acres at a time. At one spot was a bank 100 feet high, covered with birch and alder wood. The soil, being spongy, became overlaid with moisture imbibed from the rain, and with all its trees was hurled down the river like a floating island. While William Macdonald stood astonished to behold a portion of his farm thus sailing off to the ocean, a large piece of land rent itself away from its native hill, and descended at once, with a whole grove of trees on it, to the river. Mr. Suter's house, at Moy, was filled on the night of the 3rd with women and children, who had been driven from their cottages; the men being actively employed, at the risk of their lives, in saving others. There was great anxiety felt for the fate of those who had not yet escaped from their houses, particularly for a family named Kerr, and for that of one Sandy Smith, commonly called Funns. At seven in the morning of the 4th, Mr. Suter found his servant, Alexander Kerr, standing on a spot he had not left during the night, gazing towards the house of his parents, and weeping in great agony; for their rescue appeared utterly impossible. Mr. Suter tried to comfort him; but while he spoke, the whole gable of Kerr's dwelling gave way, and fell into the raging current. With a telescope, a hand was seen working through the thatch of an adjoining roof. A head soon appeared; and at last Kerr's whole frame emerged, and he began to draw out his wife and niece. Clinging to one another, they crawled along the roof, and succeeded in reaching a small speck of ground, whence, at great risk, a boat rescued them. It was now observed, through the telescope, that Funns and his family had been driven from their dwelling, and were

all huddled together on a spot of ground a few feet square. Above a score of sheep were standing round, or wading through the shallows: three cows, and a small horse, were also grouped with the family. About seven in the evening, when the waters were subsiding, a boat was launched with four of the most skillful rowers, into the wide inundation; and, after considerable labour, owing to the many conflicting currents, the whole party was brought safe to land.

Some people were standing on the bridge of Nethey, watching the flood, when, all at once, the enormous mass of timber building, comprising the saw-mill of Straanbeg, about 500 yards above, moved bodily off, steadily and magnificently, without a plank being dislodged. It was tremendous—it was awful—to see it advancing on the bridge. The people shuddered, some moved quickly away, and others instinctively grasped the parapet, to prepare for the shock; it was already within 100 yards of them,—when it struck upon a bulwark, went to pieces with a fearful crash, and spread itself, a wreck, over the surface of the stream. The bridge of Curr, over the Spey, a single arch of sixty-five feet span, had its southern abutment undermined. The moment the support gave way, the force of the water was so great, that it made the arch spring fifteen feet into the air. While in the act of ascending, it maintained its perfect semicircular form; but as it descended, its ends came together. Mr. Brown of Rothies, observing the water was five feet high against the walls of a farmhouse, tenanted by widow Riach, and that it was evident the gable must soon fall, hurried off to procure a boat, and at length succeeded in saving the women of that house. The boat then returned for the men, and as before, pushed behind some intervening buildings. While the spectators were anxiously looking for its reappearance, the gable gave way, and carried half the building with it. When the tremendous

splash of water, and cloud of dust had cleared away, the little bark, to the unspeakable joy of the beholders, was seen through the gap in the building with the remainder of the family seated in it, who were soon happily out of the reach of danger.

The bridge over the Spey at Fochabers consisted of four arches. The view from it, on the morning of the 4th, presented one vast expanse of dark brown water, from the foot of the hill of Benagen to the sea; about ten miles in length, and two miles broad. The surface was varied only by floating wrecks, or the tops of trees, or roofs of houses, to which, in more than one instance, the miserable inhabitants were seen clinging, while boats were plying about for their relief. By eight o'clock the flood was high upon the bridge, which, however, stood firm, though the water raged furiously round the piers. Crowds of people had been on it, watching the river, during the morning; but few persons were there after twelve, when fissures, no wider than the cut of a sword, suddenly opened on either side of them. With a cry of alarm they sprang forward and escaped, when down went the whole mass of the two arches next the bank, and not a vestige of the fallen fragments was to be seen. The scene for miles along the beach was at once animated and terrible. Crowds were employed in trying to save the wood and other portions of wreck, with which the heavy rolling tide was laden; whilst the margin of the sea was strown with the carcasses of domestic animals, and with millions of dead hares and rabbits. Below Orton, the cottage of an industrious man, John Geddes, had entirely escaped the floods of former years. Alarmed at the rapid rise of the river, people of other cottages crowded, as night fell, to that of Jn. Geddes, firmly believing they should be perfectly safe in it. There nine men and women and four children sat shivering over the fire, in their wet garments. The fagots were heaped high, and they began to

forget their fears, when Geddes and another went out, and saw the water growing terrible. 'Ye're all very merry, sirs,' said he, 'as he went in, 'but ye'll no be so lang. Ye had better stir your stumps, and put things out of the way, and look to your own safety.' 'The words were hardly out of my mouth,' his account continues, 'when in came the river upon us. We lifted the meal-chest, and put the wife and her baby, and the bairnies, into the bed; and the rest got upon chests and tables. We put the fire on the girdle, hung the girdle on the crook in the chimney, and stuck the lamp upon the wall. But the water soon drowned out the fire, and rose into the bed. I then put two chairs in the bed, and the wife sat upon them with the little ones in her lap; but the water soon got up to them there. Then I cut the ceiling above the bed, put a door between the two chair backs, laid a bed on the door, set the wife and little ones above that, and then went and held the door firm with my feet, having an axe ready to cut the house roof in case of need. We were long in this way, and I cheered them the best I could, and told them the hours every now and then by my watch, which I hung up in my sight; but the water rose and rose till about two o'clock, when it drowned out the lamp. There was then a groan and a cry, that there was nothing for us now but death.' Voices, however, were soon after heard without; and boats having reached the building, the whole of the inhabitants were eventually conveyed to a place of safety.

ST. KATHARINE'S DOCKS OPENED, 1829.—These are laid out on the site of the ancient monastery and hospital of that name. The cost of them was 1,827,113*l.*: and they were constructed by the merchants of London, on the much-admired and novel plan of Philip Hardwick, esq., to give additional accommodation to the increased quantity of shipping.

PROMULGATION OF HOMOÖPATHY, 1829.—Samuel Hahnemann, a German physician, in his '*Organon der*

Heilkunst,' enforced a doctrine in pathology, to the effect that every disease is curable by such medicines as would produce, in a healthy person, symptoms similar to those which characterized the given disease. So speedily was this opinion adopted by a large portion of the medical practitioners of the continent, that the term homoöpathy was adopted to express what was taken as the fundamental principle of a new science; *homoion pathos*, similar affection. Like affections, therefore, were to be cured henceforth by like, in opposition to the ancient dogma of the palliative method, 'opposites may be cured by opposites.' The homoöpaths call the palliative supporters *antipaths*; and those who follow the commonly-used plan of attempting a cure by exciting some dissimilar affection, *allopaths*. Hahnemann professed to build his hypothesis upon the conformity of his project to the plan of nature; and as, if because some diseases are slow in progress, and have been formed by gradual accessions and increments, so did he project the annihilation of them by like means, and labour to show that medicines, by being diminished in quantity to infinitesimal atoms, by trituration and shaking, become in an equal ratio the more powerful in their effects upon disease. Thus two or three billionth parts of a grain of mercury are, by division and friction, more potent than one entire grain, in the cure of any disorder of the system, properly applied. Let not therefore, be considered henceforth as inconsistent the mechanical adage, 'that nothing is stronger than the weakest part,' nor be longer regarded as purely rhetorical, the flourish of the poet,

'My wound is great—because it is so small;'
an oxymoron which the witty duke of Buckingham parodied while in the player's mouth, with the logical sequitur,

'Then 'twould be greater, were it none at all!'
and so got the play condemned.

But we would not so condemn, nor wish at all to see condemned, the

system of Herr Hahnemann ; neither, in our contempt for minute doses of physic, would we run to the opposite extreme, and laud an antagonist pathological system, which started in England itself, simultaneously with the importation of homœopathy. We allude to 'the Hygeian plan,' whose adoption consisted in taking the pills of one Dr. Morrison in vast doses ; and while the lower classes were in ecstasies at the discovery of what they regarded as a panacea, the public press launched against it a host of satirical epistles, in the style of the one following.

'To Dr. Morrison. Most respected Sir,—Having been appointed your agent, and being therefore influenced, like yourself, by the most disinterested motives, I make it a point to recommend your medicines on all occasions, and always in sufficiently large doses—on which, I observe, you lay peculiar stress ; and very justly—for does it not follow, that if six pills do a certain quantity of good, six thousand must, as a natural consequence, do six thousand times as much more, and the patient be six thousand times the better for them ? There are some censorious folks who insinuate that the more pills I sell, the more money I get by them ; but I need not assure you, that, in this respect, my motives are quite as disinterested as your own. Yours ever to command, FRANCIS FLEECE-EM. P.S. Please to send me a dozen waggon-loads of No. 1 pills, and the same of No 2 pills as early as possible.

We regret that Samuel Hahnemann was a disciple of Mesmer, and that a vast deal of the success which has attended the carrying out of certain parts of his system, can alone be ascribed to the immense power of his patients' imaginations. Though educated for the medical profession, Hahnemann was simply a chemist, and certainly no physiologist. While making experiments in the science he had adopted, at the close of the last century, he observed or concluded that some doses of cinchona bark, taken by himself to relieve

debility of stomach, *produced* in him all the symptoms of intermittent fever—a disorder of the human frame which the same drug was commonly employed to *remove*. There is no knowing to what, in certain German minds, this species of sudden illumination of the understanding would lead : in the speculative one of Herr Samuel it originated the since vaunted hypothesis which has conferred celebrity on his name.

It may be a question whether both the allopathic and the homœopathic systems, if invariably pursued, would not lead equally to mischief ; since there are occasionally seen conditions of the human frame, wherein the one will, and the other will not remove the disturbing affection. Doubtless here, as in every thing else, the 'media via,' or, as the French have it, 'le juste milieu,' will ultimately be found by some judicious weigher of the two methods, the really right course ; and if homœopathy produce not the extensive good predicted by its well-meaning inventor, there is no small reason to believe that it will, after a time, work a considerable change in the English method of treating affections of a chronic nature.

ALGIERS MADE A FRENCH SETTLEMENT, 1830.—The territory of Algiers (properly Al-yezira, 'the island,' from its chief fort, Algiers, having a fortified island before it) includes the several divisions of ancient Numidia, both of the Massyli, and of the Massœsyli, the kingdoms of Massinissa and his rival Syphax, and afterwards of Jugurtha. It also includes part of the Mauritanian kingdoms of Bocchus and Juba. It was conquered successively by the Romans, the Vandals, the Byzantine Greeks, and lastly by the Arabs who invaded North Africa at the beginning of the eighth century, and established the Islam. Ferdinand the catholic, after driving the Moors from Spain, sent an expedition to Africa under cardinal Ximenes and Don Pedro Navarro, which took possession, 1509, of Oran and Marsa-al-

Kebir, and, of the island before Algiers, 1510, and built a fort there. The Moors of Algiers, who were under a chief called Selim Entemi, called to their assistance the Turkish corsair, Barba-rosa, who had made himself famous by his exploits in the Levant seas. That chieftain became ruler of Algiers, and was succeeded by his brother, Heyreddin, 1518, (as shown in vol. ii. p. 42); and the latter, to secure his authority, put himself, 1519, under the allegiance of Selim I., of Turkey, who declared him regent and pacha of Algiers, and sent him a body of janizaries. Heyreddin took from the Spaniards the island before Algiers, which he joined by a pier to the mainland in 1531, thus forming a safe harbour. He manned a large fleet, with which he swept the Mediterranean, striking terror among the Christian sailors. Suleiman II. called him to Constantinople, and raised him to the rank of capudan pacha, or great admiral. Hassan, a Sardinian renegade, who succeeded him in the regency of Algiers, continued to scour the sea, and make incursions on the coast of Spain. Charles V., in his plenitude of power, was baffled in his attack upon Algiers, 1541: a terrible storm dispersed his fleet, and the army was obliged to re-embark in the greatest confusion. From that epoch the Algerines thought themselves invincible, and extended their piracies, not only all over the Mediterranean, but also into the Atlantic, and seized the vessels of all nations who did not agree to pay them a tribute. Admiral Blake first taught them to respect the flag of England; Louis XIV. caused Algiers to be bombarded, 1683, by admiral Duquesne; the Spaniards, under general O'Reilly, landed near Algiers, 1775, but were obliged to re-embark in haste, and with loss; the Dutch, after several combats, paid a large sum of money, and thus obtained respect for their flag—so did likewise the Danes and Swedes; the Austrian and Russian flags were protected by the special

interference of the Porte, in consequence of treaties with the latter; but the Italian states were the greatest sufferers from the piracies of the Barbary powers, who not only seized their vessels and cargoes, but made slaves of all on board, and either sold them in the market, or sent them chained to the public works. The precise epoch of the beginning of this organised, and we may almost call it legalised, system of piracy, (for it was recognised by the various treaties which the Christian powers condescended to sign,) appears to date from the end of the fifteenth century; when the Spanish Moors, driven out of Granada and Andalusia, settled on different points of the coast of Barbary, and thence retaliated upon their Christian enemies by seizing their vessels. The establishment of the knights of St. John in the island of Malta, whose profession was one of constant warfare against Moslims, tended to keep alive and to justify the system of indiscriminate reprisal on the part of the latter. But cupidity was the great incentive; as the produce of the prizes and of the slaves was an essential source of revenue to the Algerine government, and of profit to private speculators. It was a common saying, 'that Algiers without privateers must starve.' In 1815, the Algerine power was checked in its lawless exactions by the ships of the United States, which took an Algerine frigate and brig: the dey was also compelled to conclude a treaty with the Americans, renounce all tribute, and pay them 60,000 dollars as compensation for the ship that had been plundered. Lord Exmouth, in execution of the determination taken by the congress of Vienna, put an end to Christian slavery in 1816; but the Algerines still claimed the right, as an independent power, of declaring war against any state they chose, and of seizing its merchant vessels, and releasing the crews, or keeping them in prison till peace was agreed on. At last, an

insult offered by the dey, Hussein Pacha, April 1827, to the French consul, whom he struck, induced the French government to send an expedition on a very large scale, to take possession of Algiers. This was effected in June, 1830. Algiers capitulated to general Bourmont; the dey abdicated, and retired to Europe; while the French took possession of the town, of the fleet, and of the treasury, where they found above 2,000,000*l.* sterling in precious metals and stores. They garrisoned Algiers, and established a sort of military government under the general-in-chief. Up to the year 1839, the Christian population introduced by the conquerors to Algeria, as they term their new colony, amounted to 19,000 souls; of whom 7000 were French, 6000 Spaniards, 2500 Maltese-English, and the remaining 3500 Italians and Germans; for whose protection an army of 35,000 soldiers was required—almost two to an inhabitant. Since that period, an extension of territory has been the main policy of the French; a circumstance a good deal occasioned by the formidable attempts to drive them out, made by Abdal Kader, soldan of the Hadjouts, one of the most powerful Moslem princes of the desert. Numerous Arab tribes united under his standard; and to this time (1843) he has harassed the Christian invaders of the Moorish soil, and occasioned them vast loss of men and money. As the occupation of Algiers by the French was declared by them in the first instance a temporary measure, and as the commonwealth of the Christian nations of Europe, for their mutual security, have long come into the well-understood compact, that every nation shall (to prevent the danger of any one state from the aggrandisement of another) confine itself within the limits assigned by existing treaties, much jealousy has been expressed by the other great powers at the apparent intention on the part of France, not only to keep Algiers in perpetuity, but to make the con-

quest also of the whole north coast of Africa. It is a question, however, whether the invaders will not be sufficiently punished, without other molestation, by the natural course of events. The French are proverbially bad colonists. Their peasantry, so long as they can daily gain seventy-five centimes in their own country, will prefer them to three francs a day in a foreign land: and should the present coldness, with respect to the settlement in Algiers, of men of capital, desirous of forming and making agricultural establishments, continue, the most ruinous losses will ensue, and France, weakened by costs of blood and treasure, will at length be compelled to relinquish her African possession.

The title of *bey*, which in Turkish means uncle, has not lately been used at Algiers, whose sovereign was styled pacha and effendi: the Moors termed him *baba*, father. He was elected by the bashis, or officers of the militia, assembled in *dewann*; or rather by a faction of them, which also frequently shortened his reign by a violent death. Few sovereigns of Algiers, for the last two centuries, have died a natural death. The races inhabiting Algiers as it was, were seven: Berbers or Kabyles, Arabs, Moors, Turks, Cooloolis, Jews, and Negroes from Soudan. The Kabyles still inhabit the whole of the mountainous country, both along the great and the little Atlas chains; while the Arabs occupy the intermediate plains. The clans of the former assume before their names the Arabic prefix of *Beni*, as Beni-Mozab; whilst many of the Arab tribes, scattered about the country of Algiers, use that of *Welled*, which means the same, such as Welled Helfa,—the sons of Helfa. The Arabs who encamp in the plains, are known also by the name of Bedwans; and indeed the latter appellation is often given indiscriminately to the Kabyles also, by the people of the towns on the coast. These Arab tribes are the remains of the various great emigrations of their country-

men from Arabia, and have kept themselves distinct from the other races around them. They resemble, in their appearance and habit, their Asiatic ancestors, of whom they boast. They often move their camps in quest of water, or of fresh pasture for their flocks. They speak the Korseish, or eastern Arabic, with more or less purity, are strictly observant of the Koran, are governed by their elders or sheiks, and are all tributary to the bey of their respective provinces.

The north coast of Africa is at this day, through the prevalence of marshes, exceedingly unhealthy; but as, in the time of the Roman emperors, the same line of coast was at once the most fertile, civilized, and salubrious portion of the globe, it seems easy to imagine that something of its ancient character may be restored to it, and that culture and modern arts may again replenish it with flourishing cities and bustling sea-ports. But the French are assuredly not the people to realize these blessings: they are still disposed for military glory, and still thirst for conquest and adventure as in the age of Napoleon: and such being the predominant vices of both government and people, the sword and the musket will be still infinitely more in vogue in Algeria, than the plough and the shuttle.

THE PROMULGATION OF DEONTOLOGY, 1830. — Mr. Jeremy Bentham, known long in England as the head of a new sect of sophists, called utilitarians, who declare their search to be after *maxima felicitas*, or the greatest-happiness-principle, left his papers for posthumous publication to Mr. Bowring; and that gentleman has given them to the world under the title of 'Deontology,' or the science of Morality. Deontology, therefore, affects to be a new system of ethics, and takes its appellation from *to deon*, the Greek expression for the fit or right. Spurning all previous moral codes, Mr. Bentham has the boldness to speak thus of our ancient philosophers: 'While Xeno-

phon was writing history, and Euclid giving instruction in geometry, Socrates and Plato were *talking nonsense*, under the pretence of teaching religion and morality.' By a species of mental machinery, analogous to the calculating engine, Mr. Bentham would work out problems with virtue and vice, as Mr. Babbage does with numbers; and that which the preaching of the inspired prophets, and even the spread of Christianity has failed to effect, is at once to be brought about by the instrumentality of the modern Jeremiah. Deontology is constantly and certainly to restrain man from error; and let a man submit his thinking organs but for a moment to the wheels of the deontological machine, and he will see at once, that if he be a drunkard, a gambler, or, in short, a breaker of any moral command whatever, it will not *be fit* that he should be a breaker of any moral command any more, and further than that, he will not any more be a breaker thereof. The faith of the deontologist may be summed up in a few words. That those actions are moral which produce the greatest possible happiness, and those immoral which have a contrary tendency; that virtue is the preference of a greater remote good to a less adjacent good; that vice is only a false moral arithmetic; that the ablest moralist is he who calculates best,—the most virtuous man, he who most successfully applies right calculation to conduct; that moral sense and right reason are nothing more than empty forms of ignorant dogmatism; that it is idle for a man to talk about *duty*, because every man who hears him is thinking about *interest*; that *ought* and *ought not* are phrases without meaning, except with reference to pleasure or to pain; that if any man were to act always with a correct view to his own interest, he would secure to himself the greatest obtainable portion of felicity; and that if every man thus acted correctly for his own interest, mankind would reach the millennium of accessible bliss,—and the

end of morality, *maximam et universam felicitatem*, would then be accomplished. The great maxim to be kept in view, even when acting for one's own interest, is to acquire pleasure *at the least possible cost of pain to others* : it is better to hurt only one in obtaining your end, than to injure fifty. Kill you must—not for another's dying, but for your own living—kill to eat. And killing to eat, take as *large* a victim as possible, that the need to kill again may not soon return—bearing in mind 'that the poor beetle we all tread upon, feels a pang as great as when a giant dies.' Every ancient philosopher had his motto and maxim : surely that of the deontologist is '*Chew elephant—eschew shrimps.*' Three things are evident then from this utilitarian creed ; first, that Mr. Bentham's arguments are, like mathematical questions, all on one side ; secondly, that he gives no man credit for disinterestedness ; and last, that he would deprive us of our conscience, simply to give us in its stead a rule of conduct, which, however perfect and demonstrable, must be self-acting, and execute itself—powers with which no hitherto known moral laws are inducd.

EPSOM RACE STAND COMPLETED, 1830, at a cost of 13,890*l.*, raised in shares. The two most frequented courses in England are Newmarket and Epsom. Epsom races begin on the Tuesday preceding Whitsunday, and continue to the end of the week ; and there is a second race, of inferior interest, in October. Newmarket races occur seven times in the year. At what time these sports were introduced into England, it is now matter of doubt. King John is the first sovereign noted for his love of swift horses of chase ; but Edward III. was the first who bought running horses at 13*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* each, for mere racing purposes. In Elizabeth's time, racing was approved as a liberal and innocent pastime, even by the puritanical writers. James I. gave great encouragement to the same, and sil-

ver bells were the rewards ; and after Charles II. had restored Newmarket races, each succeeding sovereign displayed an interest in the turf, by granting pieces of plate to the winners. The chief benefit resulting from the turf, is the improvement in the breed of that valuable animal, the horse ; hence the modern English steed, whether racer, hunter, or draught horse, is allowed to surpass in essential points even the far-famed animals of Arabia. So extraordinary has been the attention paid to pure blood and pedigree, that a defect therein is instantly evinced in both inferiority of shape, and a failure in strength and speed.

DECLINE OF THE DRAMA.—The British stage, as far as London was concerned, was almost suddenly deserted at the opening of the reign of George IV. Every lover of English literature, every man of intellectual taste or refinement, and every friend to the education of the people, must feel an interest in the prosperity and good management of our national theatres. From the time of Pericles till now, theatrical entertainments have constituted an indispensable part of the higher pleasures of mankind, and have exercised, in every nation, an extremely important influence upon the popular manners, habits, and character. Nowhere, perhaps, has this been more felt than in England ; where they have at once drawn forth, and derived their own chief support from, wonders of poetical genius, not surpassed in any age or country. For three centuries they were the glass in which the court, the aristocracy, and the highest classes of society, studied humanity. In our own time, their attraction has spread itself over a still wider surface ; and they have learned to appeal with success to the favour of the middle and working classes. They are now so firmly established, that the idea of putting them down, or eradicating them, could be entertained by no one in the least degree acquainted with human nature. When

it is considered what these exhibitions are—that they present both to the ear and to the eye an image and example of real life—of motives, acts, habits, manners, sentiments, characters, the adaptation of means to ends, the use and abuse of opportunities, the causes, consequences, and (above all) the estimation of mankind of good and bad actions—it must be felt that they cannot operate upon those who resort to them as merely indifferent things, but must tend either to good or evil. If noble thoughts, just opinions, and natural views of life be suggested—if the morality of the stage be what the morality of the world ought to be—if sympathy be directed to worthy objects, then theatrical performances will do positive moral good to the ignorant and unthinking, while they cannot possibly injure any one else. If, in addition to these recommendations, the noblest conceptions of the greatest minds are brought before the spectator—the highest poetry, the purest fancy, the most splendid types of character, the most august historical traditions and names, accompanied by the beautiful in scenery, music, costume, grouping, and arrangement of forms, and receiving life from the actor's art, it is easy to see that the dullest and most vulgar-minded auditor must go away with more elevation of sentiment than he brought with him. If any thing can stimulate the higher qualities of the understanding, and create in their possessor the desire of intellectual pleasures, and the admiration of intellectual beauty, such representations as these will do so. They are worth more for this purpose than all the Mechanics' Institutes, or reading-rooms in the world.

Unfortunately this has not been the prevailing character of theatrical entertainments in our day. Many causes have contributed to degrade the drama within the last twenty years; and till quite recently, it had fallen very low indeed. The late hour of dining adopted by the

higher circles of society after the close of the war, 1815, the denunciations of a pharisaical religious school, the real abominations connected with the management of theatres—have all tended to narrow the support given by the most highly cultivated classes to the histrionic art; and the means taken by stage-managers to recover the lost favour of the public, have served both to degrade the drama more, and to ruin the speculators in theatrical matters. A resort to elephants, and other bestial, instead of human actors, was for a time a hope of the managers; and when this failed, the 'star system,' as it is called, or the paying enormous salaries to superior performers, was adopted—a course at once ruinous to the treasuries of theatres, and destructive to dramatic authorship. Managers, unable to pay talented men for original plays, were thus driven to translators and adapters, to support their own stage upon the resources of those of other countries. Mr. Elliston, as manager of Drury-lane theatre, was the first to introduce the injurious star system, 1822, by offering Liston, who was grumbling at 17*l.* per week at Covent-garden, 50*l.* for that period. Mr. Charles Young, who had been receiving a *weekly* salary of 20*l.* at Covent-garden, was soon brought, in like manner, to the rival house, by a *nightly* one of the same amount; and so matters proceeded, until both theatres contended which should offer most to its actors. The great John Kemble never had more than 36*l.* per week; Miss O'Neill, at her highest point, 25*l.*; Mathews, who could entertain a whole house unassisted, 17*l.*—and that he thought 'stupendous and magnificent,' as he says in a letter; Munden, 14*l.*; Mrs. Jordan, in the zenith of her popularity, 31*l.* 10*s.* per week; Miss Stephens, during the early and best part of her career, 20*l.* per week—and at the very last, 60*l.* But behold Macready rise from 20*l.* per week to 25*l.* per night; Charles Kemble from 20*l.* per

week to 20*l.* per night; Power the same; Miss Ellen Tree, from 15*l.* per week to 25*l.* per night; Charles Kean, from 30*l.* per week to 50*l.* per night! The flame soon spread to the third great theatre, the Opera-house; and there we find Malibran demand and receive no less than 125*l.* per night, for nineteen nights—in all, 2375*l.*; and the week's amount was, by stipulation, paid every Monday morning in advance! But this was not all: she received 1088*l.* for seven extra nights at Covent-garden—making a total of 3463*l.* for twenty-six nights, being at the rate of more than 40,000*l.* a year! Taglioni, again, had the modesty to demand 100*l.* per night for herself, three nights per week; 600*l.* as the season's salary for her father as ballet-master; and 900*l.* as that of her brother and sister—besides two benefits for herself, guaranteed at 1000*l.* each, and half a benefit to her brother at 200*l.*! We are not, as we have shown, among those who would decry the drama because of the mismanagement of playhouses; but we think something must be wrong, when a stage-player can net sums larger in amount than any learned profession or state-appointment will permit, even more than seven times the stipend of a lord-chancellor! Equalize the church livings of the country, and no single incumbent will have 300*l.* per year: half that sum we see given for the single night's pirouetting of a foreign operadancer, and three times its amount for her benefit-night. Let the claims upon the clergyman's purse be then remembered—perhaps those of a large family, and certainly those of the poor of his parish—and compare those with the claims of the operadancer, whose money, if it go not to support an extravagant home in England, is expended abroad, benefiting no one in the country whence

it was raised. This ought to be amended.

ALTERATIONS IN DRESS.—During the regency of the prince of Wales, 1811—1820, nothing was more worthy of observation in domestic matters, than the changes which were made in the fashion of apparel. On state occasions at court, the ladies' hoops were laid aside, gentlemen's bag-wigs and their accompaniments were exploded, and all professional habiliments were henceforth regarded as fit for the royal presence. In private life, in like manner, half-hoops were abandoned, pig-tails were cut off, the hair was deprived of its powder, trousers *à la Turc* took the place of knee-breeches and pantaloons, and ladies' waists, which had for more than a century been worn to the lowest possible point, were now, in imitation of the Parisian dames, made to terminate at the bosom, so as to show a width of chest, which singularly contrasted with the ancient tapering, that the clasped hands might span. Abandoned now was the long trailing train. The clergy even (sad to say) caught the infection; and the bushy wig and shovel hat, that had been so long the respected emblems of pastoral dignity, and the excitors of outward regard, at least for the Church, in company with the aforesaid ladies' trains, long waists and hoops, and gentlemen's pantaloons, knee-breeches, powder, and pig-tails, were seen no more—save on the head of here and there some venerable champion of the old system, who, after standing firm through all the ages to an octogenarian life, resolved, for his short remaining term, still spiritedly to resist the changes of innovation, and to wear to the grave, as emblems of his sacred calling, the outward garments, together with the inward purity, of the priesthood.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

FRANCE UNDER CHARLES X.—The count d'Artois succeeded upon the decease of his brother, Louis XVIII.,

1824, as Charles X., being the prince whose second son, the duc de Berri, had been so daringly assassinated in

the previous reign. The eldest son of Charles, the heir-apparent, or dauphin, was the duc d'Angoulême (still living). During the rule of Louis XVIII., sanguinary disputes had often occurred in the south of the kingdom, where the old animosity of catholics and protestants had been revived by political feuds; and it was to allay them principally that Louis had dissolved his chamber, designated '*introuvable*' (never to be found), 1818, and enabled the moderate constitutionalists to regain the ascendancy. King Charles, however, supported the high catholic party in the state, expressed his sympathy for the Vendéan and other southern supporters of ultra-Romanism, and resolved as far as possible to restore the old régime. In this spirit he offended a large portion of his subjects at once, by his re-establishment of the law of primogeniture, which gives to the eldest son the right of inheritance to his father's landed property. Liberty and equality had been too long the watchwords of the nation to bear so manifest a check; and when the minister, Peyronnet, attempted to shackle the press, the popular discontent was openly evinced. A new cabinet of noted royalists being formed under prince Polignac, various attempts were made to induce the king to dismiss it; but when there issued forth three ordinances, the first abolishing the freedom of the press, the second dismissing the chamber of deputies before it had been formally assembled, and the third, altering the laws of election, the public indignation knew no bounds. The ministers hoped, at this juncture, to turn the minds of the people to foreign affairs: the dey of Algiers had insulted the French consul, and having been driven out by the troops sent over to avenge the injury, Algiers became a French settlement. But domestic politics were, as they had long been, the darling business of the people; and when the police attempted, on the 25th of July, 1830, to destroy the printing-presses of

some obnoxious journalists in Paris, the mob commenced a fierce attack upon the agents of government. As soldiers were called to strengthen the civil power, the populace barricaded the streets; and these being joined by the students of the Polytechnic school, and even by some troops of the line, the national guards, with marshal Marmont at their head, were compelled to evacuate the city. By the third day of the insurrection, king Charles was satisfied that the nation would no longer regard him as its ruler, and retired to Rambouillet; whereupon the duke of Orleans was made lieutenant-general of the kingdom, and on the 9th of August, on signing the charter of a free constitution, was raised to the dignity of king, not of France, but of the *French*.

The *émée* 'of three days,' as it is termed by the ever sentimental French, occasioned the slaughter of nearly 4000 men, women, and children.

THE POPEDOM. — Cardinal Annibale della Genga (1760—1829) succeeded Pius VII., 1823. He was well acquainted with diplomacy and foreign politics; and in the exercise of his authority, and in asserting the claims of his see, he assumed a more imperious tone than his meek and benevolent predecessor. He re-established the right of asylum for criminals in the churches, enforced the strict observance of meagre days, denounced the Carbonari and other secret societies, and, in a letter to the bishops, violently attacked the Bible societies, as acting in opposition to the decree of the Council of Trent, session IV., concerning the publication and use of the Scriptures. The vigour of Leo, however, has been acknowledged extremely beneficial to his territory, after the laxity bred by the French revolution: he negotiated with the new states of South America, for the sake of filling up the vacant sees; gave a new and liberal organization to the learned college of Sapienza at Rome; by a '*moto proprio*' (decree) completely

reformed the administration of the papal state; and established an admirable police. He died, aged 69, 1829, and was succeeded by Francesco Xavieri Castiglioni, who took the title of Pius VIII. He was born at Cingoli, 1760, and in 1816 was made bishop of Frascati, grand penitentiary, and a cardinal. Nothing material occurred during his short pontificate; which terminated by his decease at the close of 1830, at the age of 70. His death occurred just before the explosion of an abortive attempt by a jacobin party, in the French interest, to raise an insurrection in the Romagna, the signal for which had been 'the glorious three days' butchery at Paris in the preceding July; and his successor is the present (1843) pope (Mauro Cappellari) GREGORY XVI., who was elected, after a delay of three months, February, 1831.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER GEORGE IV.—The earl of Moira (the marquis of Hastings) was recalled from the government, 1823, and succeeded by lord Amherst; the whole peninsula, with little exception, being at the moment under either the actual sway, or the protection of the British. In 1824 a war commenced with the Burmese, who had for many years given much trouble on the eastern frontier. An expedition under sir Archibald Campbell was sent to Rangoon, which, in 1825, advanced nearly to Ava, the capital; and the *boa*, or king, was glad to purchase peace in 1826, by the cession of Assam, Aracan, and Jenasserim, the first of which provinces has, from its fit soil, been selected by the English to raise the tea-plant. The *boa* also engaged to abstain from further encroachments, and to render 1,000,000*l.* sterling as the cost of the war; but there being a subsequent attempt to evade payment, it was found necessary to enforce it by a second warlike display. During this contest, such prisoners as fell into the hands of the Burmese were, according to ancient custom, crucified, and laid with

their crosses on the river Erawadi, as a prey to vultures, in the sight of the two armies. The state-carriage of the Burmese viceroy of Tavoy, valued with its jewels at a lac of rupees (12,500*l.*) was at length captured by the English, as well as the viceroy himself, a man of great personal strength, and of unbounded ferocity; and this success closed the war in favour of the British, 1827. The Burmese are generally a fierce and powerful race, totally unlike the gentle and cunning Hindus. Originally inhabiting the chain of mountains stretching from the confines of Tartary down to the Indian ocean, these hardy children of the hills poured down from their native fastnesses, and successively fixed their yoke upon the separate kingdoms of Ava, Pegu, Aracan, Assam, and part of Siam; and at length, having condensed their conquests into one state, with a population of 19,000,000, called it Burmah, after their own name. The government is, of course, despotic; and the *boa*, styled 'lord of the golden foot,' is the sole proprietor of life and substance in his dominions. The country is extraordinarily fertile, being completely irrigated by the river Erawadi; and its mines of gold are as prolific as those of Peru. There are vast wells of naphtha, or earth-oil, for which the Chinese resort to Burmah, as well as for precious stones, teak-wood, ebony, and statuary marble; the last named being equal in texture and whiteness to the finest specimens of Italy. In a word, the climate and soil are alike excellent; and there is little doubt that, were agriculture at all attended to, Burmah would soon show itself what it has been termed, 'the garden of the East.' The people are, like most of their neighbours, Buddhists; and their temples are gorgeously adorned with jewels, and many of them, like the *boa's* palace, roofed with gold. The year which witnessed the treaty with the Burmese was signalized by the capture of Bhurt pore, a strong fortress

in Upper India, which had been unsuccessfully attacked by lord Lake in 1805.

In 1828, lord Amherst was superseded by lord William Bentinck, who held his appointment till the decease of king George IV. It should be remembered that the Hindustan colony is divided into three presidencies, Bengal, Bombay, and Madras, and that there is a governor over each of the three; but the governor of Bengal has precedence, and is styled Governor-general of the united colony. The foundation of the greatness of British India was laid by the energy of lord Clive; advanced and saved from early overthrow by the quicksightedness of the ill-used Warren Hastings; and consolidated, under Providence, by the political sagacity of the marquis Wellesley. Its military force amounts to 200,000 men, a great portion of which are native soldiers, officered by Europeans: the rest are a few regiments of British troops. The native soldiers are called *sipahis*, but more commonly *sepoys*; and, unlike the soldiers of Europe, the *sepoys* is an object of envy to his less fortunate compatriots. His profession gives him the precedence, not less in general estimation, than in that of his caste, to persons engaged in civil occupations; and his pay is so considerable, as to raise him both in station and enjoyment far above his brethren left behind him in his native village. Each private *sepoys* is attended by two servants: in the field there are, at an average, nine followers to every two fighting men: a system which gives to 100,000 men, in a campaign, nearly 500,000 attendants, and goes far to explain both the prodigious hosts recorded in history, as commanded by Xerxes and Darius, and the facility with which they were routed by a comparatively small body of Greeks, all real soldiers. Such a mode of carrying on war augments, to a great degree, the difficulty of providing subsistence for so large a multitude as attends every considerable army.

SPAIN UNDER FERDINAND VII.—

The education of this prince, the son and successor of Charles IV., had been conducted by the canon Ecoliquiz, who took subsequently a prominent part in delivering his pupil from the thralldom of Godoy, his father's minister. So sickly was Ferdinand as a child, that it was not supposed he would ever see manhood: he, however, rapidly gained strength from the period of fourteen, and notwithstanding the seclusion in which he had been kept by his mother, displayed himself an accomplished, though somewhat diffident personage, at twenty. It has been shown that Napoleon, after keeping him a sort of prisoner six years, restored him to the throne which his father had abdicated in his favour, 1814. In March of that year he left Valençay; and after an inquiring visit to Saragossa and Valentia, to sound the opinions of his subjects, he entered Madrid in May. There were now two very opposite factions in Spain, the liberals or *exaltados* (extreme radicals), who scarcely favoured monarchy, and the *absolutists*, who were for a restoration of the absolute power of the sovereign; the former consisting of displaced soldiery and a few adherents amongst the nobles, and the latter of the mass of the nobility, clergy, and lower orders. The king's first acts were to annul the constitution proclaimed at Cadiz in 1812 by the then cortes, or parliament, and to restore the Inquisition, which the cortes had abolished; and he put down with rigour the consequent military insurrections of Porlier and others. But when the constitution was again declared in the isle of Leon near Cadiz, 1820, by colonels Quiroga and Riego, Ferdinand was induced to swear adherence thereto. For two years the leading parties concealed their mutual hatred; though an outbreak on the side of the liberals would frequently occasion a combination of the absolutists to restore the old system of government. The latter could ill bear the insolent demeanour of Mina and other consti-

tutional generals, who scrupled not to glory in the overthrow of the ancient institutions, and constantly laboured to disseminate levelling principles. At length the cortes, under the liberal influence, having divided Spain into eight military districts, with a view to overawe the absolutists, the royalists took up arms; and while the curate Merino (afterwards so celebrated) tore down the stone of the constitution at Salvatierra, at the head of 800 men, Quesada organized a royalist force in the Basque provinces, and Maranon, called the Trap-pist (because he threw off the habit of La Trappe to act as a leader), took the Seo de Urgel (the Urgellium of the Romans), and established therein a regency, 1822, which defied the power of the cortes until February 1823, when Mina recaptured the place, and, with savage ferocity, put to death 600 of its bravest defenders.

It was early in 1823 that Louis XVIII. sent troops into Spain, under the duc d'Angoulême, to deliver Ferdinand from the slavery in which he was kept by the exaltados. The contest which ensued was almost wholly between the French and constitutionalist guerilla parties; the latter intercepting the advance and valuable convoys of money and clothing of the former throughout their march. Chief of these marauding soldiers was Juan Martin Diez, better known as the Empecinado; a nickname given to the villagers of marshy spots in valleys, from *pecina*, a pool, because their places are so often flooded. Diez had been a vine-dresser; and joining a guerilla corps, he became so celebrated for his muscular strength, that, as in the primitive days, he was soon chosen independent chief of his band. For his prowess in the peninsular war, when he had been on the royalist side, George III. had sent him a sword, which none but himself could wield; and some notion may be obtained of his power, from the fact of his grappling with a huge French dragoon who had pursued him for miles, and with one stamp of his foot

bursting the bowels of his opponent. When captured at Real in Castile, by the peasantry, 1823, and led out to be executed, he burst the cords that bound him, threw five men, who then seized him, in every direction, and made a rush at his English sabre, now in the hands of an officer of Realistas standing by. He caught it by the blade, and thus nearly severed the fingers from his hand; a circumstance which enabled his executioners to throw a cloak over him from behind, and, entangling him in its folds, to pass a rope round his neck, and hang him up to a tree. The cortes, followed by Ferdinand, removed hereupon to Seville; and when the French had entered Madrid, where they were joyfully received, the cortes proceeded to Cadiz. Here that assembly declared the king in a state of incapacity, because he had refused to follow them further than Seville; whereon he was induced to join them, and patiently to wait until the French, in September, laid siege to Cadiz. The king was allowed to confer with the duc d'Angoulême, after the bombardment of the city; and the French troops having got possession of the place in October, the principal ministers and members of the cortes fled first to Gibraltar, and thence to England. The king, on his return to Madrid, adopted the same line of policy as that which had marked his first assumption of power: the absolutists and liberals took their stations as before; the former having his especial notice, and their opponents being occupied in the usual plans for the restoration of the constitution. But matters of a more private nature now began to interest the monarch. He had lost three wives, and had yet no issue; and by his union with a fourth, his own niece, Maria Christina, daughter of Francis, king of Sicily, he had only a daughter, who, by the salique law, could not reign. A party was not wanting to aid the queen's wish that her daughter should succeed, though to the prejudice of Ferdinand's next

brother, Don Carlos, who was a general favourite with the absolutists; and the point was carried through the king's favourite minister Grijalva, who, after accompanying him in his exile to Valençay, had gradually risen from a subordinate situation in the palace, to be keeper of the privy purse, and principal private adviser of the monarch. Every thing from 1824 to 1830, even the forming of the ministry, was effected by his agency. On the 6th of April, 1830, it was announced in the 'Gazette' that, by a law of Charles IV. (the pragmatic sanction, 1789), the regular succession, whether male or female, without reference to the 'loi salique,' should be observed; and as the queen just after gave birth to a second daughter, Ferdinand (it is said with reluctance) assented to the exclusion of his brother from the succession. The king died 1833, aged 49; thus leaving the terrible legacy to his country of a civil war, to which allusion will be hereafter made.

PORTUGAL UNDER JOHN VI.—It has been shown in the last reign, that king John succeeded his afflicted mother, queen Maria, 1816, who died amidst her family in her colony of Brazil in that year. Before the return of king John to Spain, his people there had formed a conditional junta, 1820; he arrived in Lisbon 1821, and in 1822 he took the oath to the constitution. In 1821 a revolution broke out in the colony which he had just left; and in 1822 the monarch was astonished to hear that it had declared itself independent of the mother-country, with his son Pedro as emperor. Although Dom Pedro refused both to see the messenger sent by his father, and to read the letters of which he was the bearer, when he arrived at Rio from Portugal to treat about a reunion, king John thought it wise to acknowledge the independence of Brazil soon after. In 1823 Dom Miguel, the second son of the king, being then commander-in-chief of the Portuguese army, declared the constitution

null and void, and was supported by his father's suppression of the same, after the lapse of a few weeks; but when the prince took upon himself to make several arbitrary arrests of freemasons, &c., the king took shelter on board a British ship, and issued a decree depriving his son of office. Dom Miguel, on this, quitted Portugal for France. In 1824 king John re-established the ancient constitution, convoking the cortes of the three orders of the state; and he died, aged 59, 1826.

FOUNDATION OF MODERN GREECE.

—A remnant of the ancient Greeks had always existed on the classic soil of the Peloponnesus, and in the islands of the Ægean sea, notwithstanding the possession of those parts by the Turks since 1715; but, from the long-continued oppressions of their hard taskmasters, the people had become slaves in mind as well as body, and few instances were until lately to be found among them of that high-souled class, which feels for the degradation of its country. When, however, hoping thus to suppress the revolt of prince Ypsilanti in Moldavia, the Porte had, on Easter Sunday itself, 1821, hanged the Greek patriarch at Constantinople, amidst the acclamations of a Turkish mob, the outrage was followed by a general rising of the Morea and Greek isles against the Ottoman authorities, on the 1st of May. The Chioters, or inhabitants of the isle of Scio, a peaceful race, and far from the theatre of war, remained quiet, until a party of Samioters and other Greeks from Candia, half partisans, half pirates, landed upon the island in 1822, and excited, or rather obliged, the people to join the insurrection. The sequel is well known. The capidan pacha came with a large force; the Samioters escaped by sea; the poor Chioters made hardly any resistance, but were slaughtered by thousands; their wives and children were carried away and sold as slaves; and the town was burned. A traveller who visited the island in 1828, describes the melan-

choly appearance of that once thriving and beautiful place. 'We walked through long streets, that contained nothing but the ragged skeletons of houses, and heaps of fallen masonry; grass, weeds, and nettles, were growing in the crevices of the marble halls, in the ruined churches, in the but lately busy streets; and, to give an idea of the utter desolation of this once populous town, we started a covey of partridges in the Strata dei Prinati, or principal street. In the town and villages of the island, there were at that moment about 15,000 Greeks, who had escaped from the slaughter, and had returned under the assurance of protection of the new pacha, Yussef; the scanty remnant of a population of 100,000.' In less than a year from the first outbreak, Athens and other considerable towns were in the hands of the insurgents: and a war of extermination commenced so terrible, that the sovereigns of the more enlightened portion of Europe at length attempted to mediate. It was high time to interfere, when one party roasted their prisoners alive, and the other, in retaliation, impaled theirs; and in July 1827, a treaty for the pacification of Greece was signed in London, by England, France, and Russia. As the Turks paid little attention to this arrangement, and had called in the aid of the disciplined forces of Mehemet Ali, pacha of Egypt, to invade the Peloponnesus, the combined squadrons of the English (under admiral Codrington), Russians, and French, sailed towards the Levant, to force the Egyptians from the Morea. The Turkish and Egyptian fleets then lay off the bay of Navarino; but, entering it upon seeing the advance of the allies, they took up, without further ceremony, a hostile position, and were followed by the three squadrons in succession.

Little communication took place between the allied and Turkish fleets, though the Dartmouth had twice carried the terms proposed by the British to Ibrahim Pacha, and as

often returned with an evasive answer, implying a contempt for their prowess, and daring them to do their worst. The Asia (Codrington's ship) anchored in the bay close abreast of the ship of the capidan bey, or Turkish admiral; and the other vessels having taken up their stations, it was strictly enjoined that no gun should be fired without the English admiral's signal, unless in return for shots fired by the Turkish fleet. Each ship was to anchor with springs on her cables, if time allowed; and the orders concluded with the memorable words of Nelson, 'No captain can do very wrong, who places his ship alongside of an enemy.' The Dartmouth having sent a boat, commanded by lieutenant Fitzroy, to request the fireship to remove, a fire of musketry ensued from the latter, killing the boat officer and several men. This brought on a return of small arms from the Dartmouth and Syrene. Captain Davis, of the Rose, having witnessed the firing of the Turkish vessel, went in one of his boats to assist that of the Dartmouth; and the crew of these two boats were in the act of climbing up the sides of the fireship, when she instantly exploded with a tremendous concussion, blowing the men into the water, and killing and disabling several in the boats close alongside. An Egyptian double-banked frigate at the same moment poured a broadside into a British ship; and in a few seconds more the contest became general.

The cannonade was one uninterrupted crash, louder than any thunder, and so continued for nearly four hours; a fireship, of which the Turks had a vast number in the bay, bursting every now and then, and committing horrible devastation, both amongst the infidels and the allies. It was observed that the Egyptian vessels were over-crowded with sailors, active brawny fellows, wearing turbans, and having bare legs; and, from the close fighting of the ships, it often happened that men were

struck dead on both sides without a wound, from the concussions which the firing of so many large pieces occasioned. Daylight having disappeared, the action ceased; and on the next morning the Turks, with perfectly new views of British naval prowess, consented to all the demands of the allies. By this almost unauthorized contest, October 20, 1827, in which the French acted with the spirit of English sailors, the Egyptian troops were compelled to return home, and the freedom of Greece was secured. The Turks, however, were too much enraged against their natural enemies, the Russians, to allow the matter to end here: in the following Spring a large army was sent against them; but in 1829 the czar was everywhere successful, and the sultan was forced to consent to terms of peace, almost at the gates of Constantinople.

The Greeks were left to settle their own plan of government; but it was scarcely to be expected that a race, degraded by centuries of bondage, should be prepared to act, so suddenly after their emancipation, with any great share of judgment. A congress of the emancipated state appointed without delay count John Capodistria, a native of Corfu, who had been employed with distinction as a diplomatic agent of Russia, to be the head of the executive, with the title of president, for seven years, and with very extensive powers. Capodistria arrived in Greece, in February, 1828; and he set about establishing a central system of bureaucracy, as in France and Russia; by which the government was to interfere in, and regulate at pleasure, all the concerns of society, civil, financial, commercial, municipal, and religious. Unfortunately for his plan, the Greeks, even under Turkish despotism, had been used to much individual freedom, and to have the direction of their own municipal, judicial, and commercial affairs, under the guidance of their archontes and clergy; the Turks lived chiefly in the

fortified towns, interfering but little in the internal concerns of the rayahs, and employing the archontes themselves to exact whatever they wanted from the people. The result therefore of Capodistria's measures was an insurrection, which began in Maina and Hydra; and on October 8, 1831, Capodistria was murdered at Nauplia, in open day, on the threshold of the church of St. Spiridion, by George and Constantine Mauromicali, the relatives of Petros Mauromicali, the bey of Maina, whom the president had kept for a long time in prison, without bringing him to trial. His brother, Augustin Capodistria, succeeded him in the presidency; but the civil war continuing, he was obliged to resign. At last the allied powers offered the crown of Greece, which had been refused by Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, to the king of Bavaria, for his younger son Otho, then a minor; and the offer being accepted, Otho, accompanied by a council of regency, and a body of Bavarian troops, arrived at Nauplia in February, 1833, and was willingly acknowledged by the Greeks as their sovereign. In June, 1835, Otho, being of age, took upon himself the direction of the affairs of the government, which is a constitutional hereditary monarchy, with two legislative houses; a senate and house of representatives. In the year 1836, king Otho made a journey to Germany, where he married Amelia Maria, daughter of the grand duke of Oldenburg; and in February, 1837, he returned with his bride to Greece, and made his entrance into Athens, the capital of the kingdom, in the midst of general acclamations. It is settled that the children of this marriage shall be brought up in the Greek communion. Since the arrival of Otho, Greece has been comparatively quiet, bating some intrigues and dissensions between the Roumeliote chiefs, the Moreote primates, and the old klepht Colocotroni. The greatest difficulty under which the state la-

hours is the want of money; the revenue amounting to but one-half of the expenditure. The loans or subsidies guaranteed by the allied powers have till now made up the deficiency. The sale of national property, if judiciously managed, offers an available resource for the future. The principal source of revenue is the tithes; the government exacting one-tenth of the produce of all private lands, and one-fourth of that of national lands. Modern Greece consists of three divisions: the northern portion, formed by a tortuous line of 140 miles, drawn across the continent from the gulf of Volo on the east, to that of Arta on the west; the Morea, or Peloponnesus, the area of which is nearly equal to that of the northern portion, while it is much more thickly peopled, and much better cultivated; and the islands, including those in the Ægean sea, the Cyclades, and Sporades, and the large island of Eubæa. The total population is about 800,000. Athens is the new capital: the chief modern towns are Tripolizza, Napoli di Romania, Navarino (Nestor's sandy kingdom of Pylos), Patras, and Missolonghi, where lord Byron died. It only remains to give a brief account of the present state and prospects of the capital, after a Parthian glance, whereby its ancient history may be connected therewith. From the Romans, Athens passed, after being occasionally held by Egypt and the Goths, to Boniface, marquis of Montferrat, 1204, and then to the Turks, under Mohammed II., 1456. When the Venetians tried to take it from the latter, 1687, a quantity of powder blew up, and nearly destroyed the Parthenon, which had previously remained nearly uninjured through 2000 years. The following is a vivid and authentic description of its condition in 1833, and in the present year.

'When, on the 6th of September, 1833, I trod for the first time the sacred path of Eleusis, and from the summit of Parnassus my gaze swept

over the plains of Attica, Athens presented a lamentable spectacle. Shattered and disordered by the reckless hand of war, she clung in scattered fragments around the hecatompedon of Minerva. It was dawn; the mass of ruins, which the passage of time had heaped upon the soil, were slowly peering through the veil of darkness that obscured them; the soft tones of the dawning light melted down the harshness of their jagged forms, and brought out in beautiful relief the fine outlines of the Ionian architecture. At the time I speak of, the temple of Theseus resounded with the neighing of horses stabled in its sanctuary; and the tents of the Albanians shouldered the walls of Stoa. From the column of the Agora were seen floating in the wind the white tunics of their young girls, suspended there to dry; and a family of gipsies had taken up their abode in the Temple of the Winds. The propylæa were converted into powder stores; the mosaic pavement of the Olympian Jupiter's temple vibrated beneath the peasant's flail; a mosque reared its head in the midst of the temple of Minerva; while the owls, scared by the first beams of day, hastened to take shelter beneath the roof of their ancient patroness. And yet, although the fury of mankind had lent its aid to the destroying influence of time, although it is true Lysander dealt the first fatal blow to Sparta's rival, whose destruction was by his commands commenced amid the flourish of trumpets,—although the Goths, the Macedonians, the Romans, and the Ottomans had in turn directed their attacks on the glorious city,—although lord Elgin had with sacrilegious hand ransacked her ruins,—the old town of Theseus, declined and pillaged as it has been, displayed imposing vestiges of its former grandeur; whereas of the Roman town, the town built by the Cæsars, all that remains unlevelled with the soil is a gate, bearing this inscription, 'This

is the town of Hadrian,—not that of Theseus.’

‘It was on the 12th of April, 1833, that the Turkish commander, Osman Effendi, had delivered Athens into the hands of the Bavarian troops, and that the standard of the Greeks was first hoisted on the Erechtheion. There were then not more than twenty habitable houses in it; and the interval between the remains of antiquity and the modern ruins, was occupied by the tents of the Albanians. Here and there were visible a few dirty coffee-shops and miserable stalls, exposing for sale the spoiled stocks of the Marsilles and Trieste warehouses. In the evening the air was filled with the barking of countless dogs, or the braying of donkeys browsing in the wilderness of thistles which covered the charred soil; and the narrow and tortuous streets, winding through heaped-up ruins, resounded with the nasal chanting of some strolling musician, as he scraped his two-stringed lyre with a piece of quill. The only *locanda* (inn) then to be found in Athens was kept by an Italian, named Cossali, who had married a Viennese. They were an original couple, and both one-eyed, but nevertheless looked well to the main chance, and charged pretty dearly for their goat’s flesh, which they served up at the *table d’hôte* under all possible shapes. They sold a small wine of Trieste, disguised under the pompous appellation of Burgundy; and for the four walls of a room, with the use of an iron bed, one chair, and a table, they exacted five francs *per diem*. Throughout the whole town there was but one plantain and one palm-tree; indeed, this was the only verdure that it was possible to descry for half a league round.

‘The mournful picture was still before my mind’s eye in all the vividness of its wretched colours, when, after an absence of eight years, I lately made my entry on board the *gubarré* Phoenix into the gulf of Ægina, steering towards the Piræus.

The wind was contrary, and we were obliged to luff the whole night. The moon threw a pale gleam over the summits of Illymetta, and the whole coast lay before us in a broad light, relieved with massive shadows. I could distinguish a long row of houses ranged in a semicircle; and on inquiring the name of the place, I was informed, to my great surprise, that where I had formerly beheld only a few mean buildings, the Piræus now stood, a new town already consisting of 1500 houses. I passed the night on deck, whence I at length beheld the sky lit up with rosy tints. In a short time the sun appeared above the mountains, the wind freshened, and our three-masted vessel sailed majestically into port. What was my amazement at the appearance of the Piræus! What activity! What a crowd of coaches and boats coming and going! Mules and cabriolets are stationed on the quays, and wait for passengers to take them into the town, the entry to which is by an excellent road. The hackney carriages go at a round pace, and are exceedingly cheap. We made a halt midway in an olive wood, where refreshments may be obtained in wooden booths. For two glasses of Rosinato wine and a cigar I paid ten leptas, or about two sous. After about ten minutes’ stay, we started off again, and soon reached the height of the Acropolis, ascended the sides of the Pnyx, and beheld Athens before us. We stood at the commencement of the new street Hermes; and, in the distance, appeared the royal castle in process of construction.

‘The existing town extends to the north-west of the Acropolis, 500 metres beyond the ancient wall of *enceinte*. It will form a hemicycle round the Pnyx and the Acropolis, which is to terminate at the temple of Jupiter Olympus; and the temple of Theseus will stand in the middle. The street of Hermes cuts the town in a right line from east to west, and is 1200 metres in length, and sixteen

broad. Two principal streets run from north to south, namely, the street of Æolus, which strikes off from the Temple of the Winds, and the street of Minerva, which begins at the portico of Hadrian. The space included between the Temple of Theseus and that of the Winds, contains none but irregular streets, with houses of mean appearance. The finest quarter of the town is that which stretches between the Temple of the Winds and the tomb of Lysicrates. Of the private houses, none are very remarkable; among them, indeed, are some vast buildings, but they are constructed without style, and with but little solidity. The king's palace will not be completed before a lapse of four or five years. It is a fine monument of a simple and elegant style of architecture, and not without an imposing aspect. It is calculated that in a year king Otho will be enabled to take up his residence there, together with his entire household. His actual residence consists of two buildings united by a gallery, the rent of which is 20,000 drachmas per year. Among the public buildings, we will mention an exceedingly pretty little theatre, where Italian operas are performed, the Civil Hospital, the Lithographic Printing-office, the two Barracks, the Military Hospital, the Bazaar, the Mint, the School-house, the Church of St. Irene, and the University. Two aqueducts have been restored, and are sufficient for the supply of the inhabitants. In the interior of the town, as well as in the environs, are numerous enclosed gardens; and a number of canals are in course of construction, for the purpose of carrying off the impurities of the town. In the evening I visited the Acropolis. The declining sun was darting his rich golden rays upon the Parthenon. I was seized with a feeling of reverential awe, as I reflected that the very height on which I now stood, had witnessed the meditations of so many great men, who to the present day have excited the admiration of mankind! Socrates, perhaps, had leaned upon this pillar! And now fragmentary remnants of the great epochs of the Greeks have become spectators of the advent of a new and flourishing era! The Acropolis is now cleared from the rubbish with which it was encumbered; and during the progress of the work, several antiquities have been discovered. The Parthenon has been freed from the modern buildings by which it was surrounded and disfigured; its columns have been raised and restored, and its steps cleansed. The Erechtheion has been restored; and the statue carried off by lord Elgin will be replaced by another, sculptured on the model of those which have been preserved. The temple of Minerva Pales is also rising from its ruins; it had been destroyed during the last war by the fall of a bomb, and the whole family of the traitor Curas was buried beneath its ruins. The Acropolis is guarded by invalids. A Suliot, with a copious grey beard, officiated as my guide, and when I was about to return, he led me to a projection of the Pelasgian wall, whence he began to explain the magnificent panorama which lay stretched beneath us. 'There lies our royal town,' said he; 'Heaven be thanked that I have lived long enough to see it rise again from its ashes. It has not been in vain that my blood has flowed in fighting against the Turks.' In the bazaar they were beginning to light the lamps, and the town was growing more and more animated. The din of evening was succeeding to the silence of day; and the inhabitants, whom the heat of the day had confined within doors, were beginning to perambulate the streets. The mode of life adopted here is Oriental, with a certain admixture of German manners. Thus the business of the day is so divided, that the principal meal is taken at midday, as though it were in the very centre of Germany. In other respects, in spite of the Greek hatred for all foreigners, the presence

of Germans has a marked influence over the manners of the indigenous population. Thus the Greek ladies have learned to pay attention to the care of their households, and they even frequent the bazaar to purchase provisions.

'Workmen are very well off at Athens; the price of labour is twice that of the material. German workmen are particularly sought after. *Locandas* are in great abundance, but there are few which can be safely recommended. Cafés are in great vogue; the business is one of great profit; they are crowded from morning to an advanced hour of the night with persons who play at dominoes and billiards, read the daily papers, and talk politics. This is the great hobby of the Athenians of the present day: the jabberers of the Agora have reappeared with the return of liberty. There is not a soul, down to the poorest cobbler's apprentice, who does not believe himself called upon to give his opinion on the affairs of the state; and this fever of political discussion, which agitates every human head, is kept up by a numerous supply of newspapers. In proportion as the state organizes itself, and gains in strength and order, property returns into existence, and commercial relations become more numerous and extended. The place is infested with tourists: every day sees fresh arrivals of English, who, loaded with guide-books and travelling-maps, promenade under the colonnades, and inspect the monuments of antiquity. At the same time a taste for the arts is inculcated, the Italian Opera is much frequented, and in families whose circumstances are easy, music is cultivated.'

As regards the Greek church, it is a strange fact, that, under the Turkish dominion, (that is, from the conquest of Constantinople in 1453,) it has preserved almost wholly its ancient organization. Under Moslem supremacy, paradoxical as it may seem, the eastern church is nearly in

the precise state as to doctrine and discipline, that marked it at the moment of its separation from the western, 880. Like the latter, it acknowledges tradition as the illustrator and interpreter of Scripture, declaring it to comprehend such doctrines as were verbally taught by the apostles of our Lord, beyond such as are recorded in holy writ; which doctrines were confirmed by the Greek fathers, and by John Damascenus, as well as by the first seven œcumenic councils of the undivided church. Its distinguishing tenet is that the Holy Spirit proceeds only from the Father; whereas both Romanists and Protestants admit the procession from the Father and the Son. It maintains the seven sacraments; requires immersion in baptism, with the chrisma to be administered instantly after; supports transubstantiation, but gives both kinds, mingling water with the wine, the priest putting the so mingled element into the mouth with a spoon; a priest who loses his wife cannot re-marry; no person can be ordained who has married twice, or a widow; a spiritual affinity is asserted to exist between sponsor and god-child (a most beneficial tenet); no layman can marry more than thrice; purgatory is not believed in; carved images are not allowed, but paintings of the Deity, of the Virgin, and of the saints are venerated; the Virgin and saints are invoked; and the days of fast are most rigidly kept. The Greek monasteries conform to the strict rule of St. Basil; an abbot being styled *higumenos*, and an abbess *higumena*. An abbot at the head of many convents is called an archimandrite, and ranks next to a bishop.

We have alluded to the synods, or councils of the Church. Of these only six have been œcumenical, (*oikoumene*) i. e. representative of all the branches of the Church Catholic established throughout the habitable world; and they took the apostolic council, held at Jerusalem on the question of legal observances, as the scriptural authority for such

assemblies. They were, 1. at Nicæa, in Bithynia, 325, to condemn the doctrine of Arius, at which 318 bishops attended; 2, at Constantinople, 381, to put down the heresy of Macedonius, who denied the divinity of the Holy Ghost, with 150 bishops; 3, at Ephesus, 451, which condemned Nestorius for denying the divinity of the Virgin, with 200; 4, at Chalcedon, 451, with 630, condemning the Monophysite heresy; 5, at Constantinople, 553, with 165, against the Nestorians; 6, at Constantinople, 680, with 170 bishops, against the Monothelites. The Greek church regards a seventh as œcumenical, that held under Irene at Nicæa, 787; and the western church contends for others. The English church admits the first four; and there were other noted synods, seven before and ten since the division of the church, not œcumenical. Those before were, 1, at Sardica, 347, to restore the bishops whom the Arians had dispossessed; 2, at Ariminum, 360, to alter the wording of the Nicene creed, at the instance of the Arians; 3, at Ephesus, 449, to depose Flavianus for condemning Eutyches; 4, at Constantinople, 754, ordering the disuse of pictures and images in churches; 5, at Nicæa, 787, which simply reversed the sentence of the previous council; 6, at Constantinople, 869, which deposed Photius, patriarch of Constantinople, the originator of the subsequent schism of the churches Eastern and Western; 7, at Constantinople, 879, which restored Photius. The ten since were; 1, the First Lateran, summoned 1123, by Calixtus II, to confirm the arrangement entered into by the pope and emperor concerning investitures; 2, Second Lateran, called by Innocent II., 1139, to condemn the Manichees' heresy; 3, Third Lateran, by Alexander III., 1179, to regulate the election of popes; 4, Fourth Lateran, by Innocent III., 1215, to publish a profession of faith condemnatory of Manichæism; 5, at Lyons, by Inno-

cent IV., 1245, depriving and deposing the emperor Frederick; 6, at Lyons, by Gregory X., 1274, declaring that the Holy Ghost proceeds Patre, Filioque; 7, at Constance, by John XXIII., 1414, condemning the Wickliffite and Hussite doctrines, and approving the Eucharistic usage of one kind only; 8, at Basle, 1431, by pope Martin, declaring general councils paramount over a pope's authority; 9, at Florence, by Eugenius IV., 1437, establishing the doctrine of purgatory, and declaring the pope supreme head on earth of the Church; 10, at Trent, called by Paul III., 1545, to correct, illustrate, and fix with perspicuity the doctrine of the Church, with a view to expose the protestant errors. It sat eighteen years. The Greek patriarch now resides in Russia, and as head of the Muscovite church, is regarded as supreme ruler, in spiritual and ecclesiastical matters, over all members of the ancient Eastern church.—(See *Russia under Nicholas I.*)

BRAZIL RAISED TO AN EMPIRE, 1822.—This country was first discovered by Amerigo Vespuccio; but the Portuguese did not plant it until fifty years afterwards, 1549, when they founded the city of St. Salvador. Till the year 1580, they had full possession of the territory between the rivers Amazon and Plata; but when Sebastian of Portugal had lost his life in his Moorish expedition, and Portugal had been added to Spain, Brazil became a Spanish possession. Under these circumstances, the colony was first assailed by the Dutch, who had thrown off the yoke of Spain; and the whole country would have fallen to them, but for the spirited conduct of the archbishop, who, at the head of a body of monks, repelled the invaders. They, however, established themselves in several of the 'captancies,' as the provinces are called, and were not finally driven out until 1654. In 1661 the Dutch government, for eight tons of gold, relinquished their interest in Brazil to the Portuguese for ever; and the

country continued attached to Portugal until 1822. The whole continent of South America, with the exception of Brazil, then belonged to Spain; but for some years, and particularly when Europe was engaged with the war of the French revolution, the ties between the mother countries had been gradually dissolving. John VI., on account of the invasion of Portugal by the French, fled for a time to Brazil, as has been shown; and nothing was wanting but such a demonstration of home weakness, to induce the colony to assert its independence on the first opportunity. Accordingly, when John VI. had been recalled to Portugal, in consequence of the revolution of 1820, and the adoption of the constitution of Spain in that kingdom, the news of the latter event had hardly reached Brazil, when the same constitution was proclaimed in the town of Pernambuco, and soon afterwards in Bahia. As it was feared that similar measures would be taken in Rio Janeiro, king John found it expedient to proclaim the constitution himself on the 26th of February 1821, and then sailed for Lisbon; leaving at the head of the administration in Brazil, Pedro, his eldest son, as regent. The cortes of Portugal did not conceal their design of restoring the old relations with Brazil, by which its commerce was restricted to the mother country; and they did not treat the deputies from Brazil quite so well as they should have done, which increased the discontent of the colonists, and prepared the way for the independence of their country. The cortes of Portugal continued their course of policy, and having formed a scheme for a new organization of the administration in Brazil, recalled the regent. But the prince refused to obey their orders, and sent the Portuguese troops stationed at Pernambuco and Rio Janeiro to Europe. The issue was that Brazil was declared an independent state, October 12, 1822; and the prince, adopting the title of em-

peror, was crowned December 1. As this step might be considered a declaration of war against Portugal, preparations for hostilities were immediately made. The Portuguese troops still occupied the towns of Bahia, Maranhao, and Parà; but Bahia being besieged by the Brazilian forces, the garrison was obliged to abandon it, upon the appearance of the admiral of Brazil, lord Cochrane, before the harbour. The garrisons of Maranhao and Parà thereupon sailed for Europe. Thus the independence of Brazil was established, with no other loss of blood than what took place in the town of Bahia.

The emperor had many struggles with his factious people, before he could shape a constitution to their taste; but at length one was drawn up and accepted by them, 1824; according to which (still in force) Brazil is an hereditary monarchy, limited by a popular assembly, the executive being in the hands of the emperor. The legislative consists of two assemblies, the senate, and the chamber of deputies; the former chosen by the emperor, and the latter by the people. The catholic faith is the religion of the state:—all other Christians are tolerated, but are not allowed to build churches, or to perform divine service in public. During these events, the cortes of Portugal had been dissolved, and the constitution abolished; but the king, after some slight attempts, being well aware that it was impossible to re-establish the former relations between Portugal and Brazil, acknowledged the independence of the latter country, 1825. In 1827, two events took place, which gave rise to great discontents; the death of king John, and the war with Buenos Ayres. By the decease of the king, Portugal devolved on the emperor of Brazil; and the Brazilians again apprehended that they might be placed in a state of dependence on that country. To remove such fears, Pedro declared his daughter Maria sole ruler of Portu-

gal, intending to marry her to his brother Miguel. The subject of the war with Buenos Ayres was the possession of the Banda Oriental; which country had expressed a wish to be united to Brazil, and had been partly occupied by Brazilian troops. But the republic of La Plata maintaining its claims to that country, the war was carried on with some activity and various fortune, between 1826 and 1828. By the peace of 1828, the emperor gave up the Banda Oriental and the Seven Missions on the Parana; both of which were to form independent republics, the former under the name of Uruguay Oriental, and the latter under that of Corrientes. But the internal peace of the country was not re-established. The chamber of deputies had been formed on democratical principles; frequent disputes broke out between it and the emperor; and sometimes great disturbances occurred in Rio Janeiro.

At length a fresh affray, 13th March, 1831, led to extraordinary results. The chamber of deputies had been prorogued; but twenty-four of the members, then residing at Rio, remonstrated with the emperor, and demanded the dismissal of the ministers. The emperor acceded to this demand; but his next choice fell on persons still more unpopular. This increased the dissatisfaction of the people, and Pedro was required to dismiss the new ministry also—which he refused to do. On the 6th of April, a tumultuous populace having assembled before the palace, the emperor ordered the military to disperse them; and, on their refusal, he issued a proclamation, by which he abdicated the throne in favour of his son, then a minor, and on the 7th left Brazil. The chamber now took a more decided lead in public affairs, and appointed a regency of three persons; and it was expected that Brazil would soon be changed into a republic.

The son and successor of Pedro I. is PEDRO II., who is burdened with the usual silly addenda of 'De Al-

cantara-John-Charles-Leopold-Salvador-Biblios-Xavier de Paula-Leocides-Michael-Gabriel-Raphael-Gonzaga.' The Portuguese, in this matter exceed in absurdity the Spanish royal houses of the old régime, whose propensity for a multitude of names was at length copied by the common muleteers of the country; and the world has not forgotten the reply of the Spanish innkeeper, who, on being roused in the middle of the night to receive a don owing to and proclaiming from below some thirty appellations, screamed out from aloft 'that there was not room in his house for half of them,' and so left the traveller to search in the dark for a more commodious hotel. Brazil occupies nearly the whole eastern coast of South America, and is equal in size to all Europe; being 2000 miles long, and 1000 wide. It is a vast and fruitful plain, having mountains able to be cultivated to their summits; and the produce of cotton, sugar, gold, and precious stones, is uniformly very great.

KAUBUL UNDER AYUB, HABEED OOLAH, AND DOST MOHAMMED.—The abdication of Mahmud, 1818, left the throne of Afghanistan at the disposal of Azem Khan, who had succeeded his brother, Futteh, both as chief of the tribe of Barukzyes, and as wusscer, or visir. His desire was that the deposed Shujah-ol-Mulk should be restored; but some of the heads of clans stopped that shah's march upon Kaubul from the Sikh country, and AYUB, another brother of Shujah, received the insignia of royalty. The Barukzye brothers, Azem and Dost (prince) Mohammed, in whom all the real power was vested, hereupon divided the Afghan state into two provinces, each taking one under his supreme government, with the title of *sirdar*: Ghuzni was the Dost's capital, and Kaubul that of Azem. The jealousy of the other influential tribes, however, kept the two provinces in perpetual commotion, until Runjeet Singh, the enterprising Sikh ruler, invaded the country, 1823, and

defeated a large Afghan force, sent to oppose his progress, at Noushero. Sejed Ahmed, the general-in-chief of the Kaubul army, had religiously raised the green standard of the prophet on this occasion, reminding the Afghans that they were now called on to recover from the possession of those scornors of the Islam, the infidel Sikhs, the district termed the Punjaub ('country of five rivers'), the Indian holy-land of the Moslims; being the spot wherein the Moham-medan faith was first planted in Hindustan, by Mahmud the Great of Ghuzni, and the ancestors of the present Afghans, 998. To wipe out the national disgrace of its loss, or, in the vaunting language of Napoleon, 'to avenge the injury of eight centuries,' Sejed Ahmed did all that an indignant follower of the prophet could do; nevertheless the heretical Sikhs nearly annihilated his large force, and captured all the Kaubul artillery in the sight of Azem Khan himself, who, unable to find a ford whereby to carry his troops across the river to the aid of Sejed, was compelled to see, from the opposite bank, full 20,000 of his soldiery put to the rout. So much did Azem take the matter to heart, that he actually died of grief in a few days afterwards; and king Ayub was compelled, as his brother and predecessor Shujah had been, to become a pensioner at the Sikh court of Lahore.

HABEEB OOLAH KHAN, the son of Azem, now declared himself sole sirdar, not daring to assume the title of shah, lest he should offend the tribes opposed to his own; but in a year after his assumption of power, his uncle, Dost Mohammed, who had suffered Habeeb's usurpation, simply to try how far the Afghans would submit to a Barukzye holding sole sway, deposed him, 1824, and declared himself *amir* of all Kaubul. The antagonist tribes, however, had been watching for this movement; and DOST MOHAMMED had no sooner been proclaimed amir, almost with the ceremonial of the shahs, than a

struggle began, which ended in the seizure of Kandahar and Peshawur by other chiefs, and of Balkh by the Osbeks. Runjeet Singh had already got Multan for his share of the dismembered state; but he did not care to extend his conquests to the west of the Indus—wisely contenting himself with consolidating the kingdom he had founded, by having that river as a boundary in one direction, while the territories of the British, whose alliance he considered it his best interest to seek, formed his almost impregnable southern frontier. Thus, of all the widely spread dominions acquired by Ahmed, the founder of Kaubul, only the single fortress of Herat, and its surrounding satrapate, remained in the possession of any of his descendants (as shown at page 133).

IRELAND UNDER GEORGE IV.—Twenty years had passed since the Union, when this monarch ascended the throne; and it must be allowed that Ireland had never before, in the whole period of its history, advanced in prosperity with a like rapidity, in an equal space of time. Discontents, it is true, were common; but it is the privilege of the Irish to grumble. Religious animosities, and the conflicts of catholics and protestants, succeeded to the more glaring evils of civil discord; but the arts of peace were in full exercise, and roads and canals, even rail-roads, had connected parts of the country, which were previously as virtually separate from each other as the two hemispheres. Agricultural produce now first began to find its way from the heart of the island to the extremities, a most precious boon to the people; while the ease of communication speedily tended to allay party spirit, and to bind men to each other. Would the great proprietors consent to live more on their estates, and not leave their affairs to 'middle men;' and would the protestant clergy attempt to live amicably with their catholic brethren, as the good bishop Jebb recommended, persuading them of

the superior apostolicity of the reformed faith, by acting up to its principles of humility and charity, rather than by entering into controversy and dispute, Ireland would soon become the true 'Emerald Isle' of its poets. But the full employment of the poor which would result from the former arrangement of the two, would act like the wand of the magician. *Absenteeism* is the fertile source of all the *agitating* and other present evils of Ireland. The absence from their native land of those whose duty it is to foster and encourage native energy, native talent, native industry,—but who, in spite of every claim on their sympathies or their patriotism, leave to poverty and neglect the land which gave them birth, and whence many of them derive their whole support,—this, this is the real cause of Ireland's woe. Surely laws should be enacted to compel such ungrateful deserters either to reside for a portion of their time in their native land, or to contribute from their affluence to the support of those whom they leave to misery and destitution.

King George IV., immediately after his coronation, paid a visit to Dublin, and was received by the Irish people with a burst of loyal affection, such as was probably never before witnessed. After a short visit, he embarked at Kingstown, in the presence of a countless multitude, who rent the air with acclamations, and with blessings on the head of the first English sovereign who had visited Ireland without hostile intentions. When the Test and Corporation acts, which required the receiving of the Eucharist according to the rites of the church of England, as a necessary qualification for office, had been repealed by parliament, 1828, the hopes of the Irish catholics for the abrogation of the laws by which they were excluded from the privileges of protestant dissenters, were greatly raised; and the *agitation* throughout the island became so great, that there was reason to apprehend a civil war. The most in-

temperate harangues were made at Brunswick meetings on the one side, and in the Catholic Association on the other; and it was manifest that nothing but promptitude and decision on the part of government could avert the effusion of blood.

The Queen's County, Carlow, and Kilkenny, were the chief scenes of the disgraceful transactions called 'whiteboy riots,' which were put down eventually by the strong arm of the military. The whiteboys, under a mere nominal leader, who had various names, wore their shirts over their other clothing, and thus obtained their title. They robbed and murdered in every direction: warnings were usually given to the parties that were to be visited, though, in many instances, men who had rendered themselves obnoxious to the insurgents by obeying the established laws, suddenly disappeared, and were never heard of afterwards.

Whiteboys, oakboys, and steelboys, were titles assumed by various insurgent parties in Ireland, just after the accession of king George III. As they were usually Roman catholics, the prejudices against their religious faith broke forth in the usual manner; and instead of being punished for their real offences, they were often regarded only as agents of a superior plot, their abettors sought for, and many gentry of the highest rank and character made answerable for their proceedings.

Early in 1829, with the hope of allaying for ever the fever of Irish discontent, (vain as was the expectation, unless total absenteeism were no longer permitted to the great proprietors of land,) a bill passed both houses of the British parliament, founded on a recommendation from the throne itself, giving full emancipation from the restraints imposed upon them at the Reformation and the Revolution, to British and Irish 'catholics' or Romanists; and the measure was certainly received at the moment in Ireland with unfeigned joy and satisfaction, by the majority of her eight millions of living souls.

EMINENT PERSONS.

CAROLINE AMELIA ELIZABETH, QUEEN OF GEORGE IV. (1768—1821), was second daughter of Charles William Ferdinand, duke of Brunswick Wolfenbüttel, by Augusta, sister of king George III., and was born at Brunswick. On the 8th of April, 1795, she became the consort of George, prince of Wales, with a stipulation in her marriage-settlement, that she was entitled to 50,000*l.* per annum, should she survive her royal husband, and to 5000*l.* pin-money during her life. It was soon sufficiently perceptible to the court that the pair did not agree; and a rupture between the princess and the royal family generally began, when a letter of her royal highness, containing some indecorous expressions concerning queen Charlotte, had been intercepted. The princess had just recovered from her accouchement (the princess Charlotte, her only child, being born on January 7, 1796), when a correspondence commenced between the royal couple, relative to their living henceforth on terms of amicable separation; but it was not until 1800 that the arrangement was finally effected, (though her royal highness had removed long before from Carlton-house, the prince's residence, to apartments in Kensington-palace,) when the princess took up her abode at Blackheath, the prince agreeing to allow her 12,000*l.* per annum, in addition to her original pin-money. Various grants were also made to her from the droits of admiralty. It was in 1801 that her royal highness formed an acquaintance with sir John and lady Douglas (the former a field-officer of marines,) at the Heath; and from their subsequent affirmations and testimony, a public inquiry was compelled to be instituted into the princess's conduct, which they declared highly irregular and immoral. They alleged that a boy, called William Austin, who, in November, 1802, had been first seen at

her royal highness's house, was her own child; and captain Manby having been one of the princess's frequent visitors, the general impression soon became, that he was Austin's father. The inquiry, which was conducted by commissioners under lord chancellor Erskine, and lord chief-justice Ellenborough, (and which was foolishly styled 'the delicate investigation,') closed with a report in substance, that the alleged pregnancy of the princess was clearly disproved, but that other parts of her conduct, 'particularly with reference to captain Manby, afforded matter for his majesty's serious consideration.' The (whig) cabinet ministers having hereupon recommended that the king should give her royal highness 'a serious admonition on her conduct,' his majesty, on the 28th of January, 1807, sent a message of admonition to the princess. Up to this time the princess had been received at court as other ladies; but the prince of Wales was urgent that his royal mother should refuse admission to his consort at her drawing-rooms in future. The new ministry (tory), who succeeded in March, with Mr. Perceval at the head, overruled the prince's wish; and soon after this point of etiquette had been settled, the princess's father fell in battle at Jena, and her mother, the duchess of Brunswick, arrived in England, and took up her abode at Blackheath, near to her daughter's residence. Matters proceeded quietly until 1809, when it was found that her royal highness had incurred debts to the amount of 52,300*l.*; and, after much inquiry and legal discussion, a deed of separation (not of divorce) was signed by the prince and princess, whereby it was agreed that the prince should pay 49,000*l.* of the debts of the princess, but be exonerated from all future demands on her account, excepting an addition of 5000*l.* per annum to her maintenance, making (with the former

17,000*l.*.) 22,000*l.* a year. This annual sum was to be put under the control of a treasurer, in order to provide against fresh liabilities; and the remaining 3800*l.* was to be gradually paid out of her royal highness's increased allowance.

In the course of the year 1812, the prince of Wales being then regent, with all the power and patronage of the sovereign, an ineffectual attempt was made by the whigs to increase the princess's allowance; and at the same time some restraints were imposed on the intercourse between the princess and her daughter, the princess Charlotte, in consequence of alleged improprieties in the conduct of the former when the latter was present. In 1813, sir John and lady Douglas petitioned parliament to be allowed a re-examination on oath concerning their charge against the princess; requesting that proceedings might be so directed as to punish them both for perjury, should they be found to swear falsely. The house, however, disregarded their prayer, and at the moment of that refusal (March 23), the duchess of Brunswick, the princess's mother, died. In 1814, queen Charlotte, in consequence of her royal son having declared his resolve never to meet the princess either in public or in private more, signified her intention to decline receiving her royal highness at court; and in August of that year, the princess, with an allowance of 35,000*l.* granted by act of parliament, and with the liberty of remaining in England or of removing to the continent, chose the latter alternative, and arrived on the 13th at Brunswick. [August 24, 1814, is the date of a bond, purporting to have been given to the princess by her brother, the duke of Brunswick-Oëls, for 16,000*l.* sterling, lent to him by her at Brunswick. When her royal highness, in 1818, filed a bill in chancery to compel the duke's executors in England to refund this sum, count Munster made affidavit 'that the bond was neither of the duke's hand-writing,

nor style of composition;' and nothing further was heard of the matter.]

After more than a month's stay in her native city, the princess, attended by ladies Forbes and Lindsay, the hon. Keppel Craven, Sir William Gell, Dr. Holland, and captain Hesse, proceeded to Italy; and having been a week at Milan, she hired there one Bartolomeo Bergami, an Italian, as courier, footman, or valet-de-place. From Milan the whole party passed through Rome (where the princess took especial notice of Lucien Buonaparte), to Naples; and there her royal highness remained from November 8 till March, 1815, giving a grand entertainment, in the month of January, to the 'dandy king' Murat. Upon her departure from Naples in March, she was quitted by all her English attendants, save lady Charlotte Lindsay and Dr. Holland; and on her way to Civita Vecchia, to embark for Genoa, lady Lindsay left her. On her royal highness's arrival at Genoa, she was joined by lady Charlotte Campbell. In May she returned to Milan, where she was quitted by lady Campbell, and joined by Mr. W. Burrell; and that gentleman accompanied her to Venice, but parted from her there, as did also Dr. Holland, and she, with only Bergami, the courier, once more returned to Milan. The duke, her brother, fell at Quatre Bras in June; and in August her royal highness, after an excursion to St. Gotthard and other places, accompanied by Bergami, now as 'gentleman in waiting,' established herself at the Villa d'Este, on the Lago di Como. The places of the princess's English court were soon supplied by the relations of Bergami, and other Italians.

Strange reports of her royal highness's conduct having reached England, persons were sent out in September, 1815, to watch her movements; but, to avoid their observation, she, in November, sailed to Palermo, and thence passed to Messina, Syracuse, Catania, and other in-

teresting spots of Sicily. Early in 1816, she, in like manner (always having Bergami as her chief adviser and companion), sailed to Tunis, Utica, Athens, and Constantinople; she passed the summer in visiting Ephesus, Jerusalem, &c., instituting, when in the holy city, the order of St. Caroline, of which she made Bergami grand-master; and in the autumn, being again at the Villa d'Este, she contrived to get into an angry correspondence with the emperor of Austria, who had very properly insisted that Bergami should not wear the cross of Malta, which he had assumed, but to which he had no manner of title. In February, 1817, her royal highness made a tour through the Tyrol to Carlsbad, and returned by Vienna; but the emperor refusing to see her, she proceeded back by Trieste to the Villa d'Este, which she soon afterwards sold, and established herself in August at Pesaro. The death of her daughter, the princess Charlotte, occurred in November, and much affected her, as the latter had ever displayed a proper filial love for her; but this circumstance by no means made her change her certainly indecorous plan of life. In January, 1820, by the decease of king George III., she became queen of England; and no sooner had she received intelligence of the event, than she quitted Pesaro for Geneva. After some stay there, she came to St. Omer, having been met on the way by Mr. Matthew Wood, an ultra whig London alderman, who had displayed a wonderful interest in her majesty's cause. Lady Anne Hamilton also joined her majesty on the road; and on reaching St. Omer, she found her legal adviser Mr. Brougham, and lord Hutchinson, waiting her arrival. The latter proposed to her certain terms of accommodation, to the effect that she should keep her regal title, and have an augmented allowance, provided she would remain upon the continent; and Mr. Brougham endeavoured to gain her acquiescence. But she rejected all

overtures; and, proceeding to England, she entered the metropolis, accompanied by vast mobs of the commonalty, and escorted in an open carriage by alderman Wood, at whose house she took up her temporary abode.

The remaining brief portion of her majesty's life may be drawn from the 'political history' of her consort's reign (p. 264). Her death occurred, in her 54th year, August 7, 1821. Of her majesty's conduct, when princess of Wales, there can be but one opinion. Putting out of the question all charge of guilt (for she was acquitted of crime by the nation, and that point is therefore set at rest), her impropriety of behaviour was highly shocking. On the sex's mere notion of what is correct and delicate in the commerce of life, the purity of society depends; but when a female, and especially of so high a rank as was her royal highness, spurns public opinion, and, even after her fame has been suspected, boldly raises to the post of chief adviser and companion, one of her serving men, and advances him higher and higher as her old and well-born companions quit her, because of her misplaced confidence, in disgust, we must not wonder if the world should at length pronounce the fame she thought so little worth a guard, for ever lost. We are sure that our own fair countrywomen better prize the poet's warning, and remember

'If woman dare to swerve from virtue's way,
And in the softer paths of pleasure stray,
Ruin ensues, reproach, and endless shame,
And one false step entirely blasts her fame.
In vain with tears her faults she may deplore,
In vain look back on what she was before—
She sets, like stars that fall, to rise no more!

SIR WALTER SCOTT (1771—1832), the most successful of modern authors, was son of a writer to the signet, and born at Edinburgh, 1771. Under Dr. Adam in the High school, and at the university of his native city, he prepared for the law, being admitted to the bar at twenty-one. His success, however, as an advocate, was indifferent; and having a turn for descriptive writing, and a taste

for the legendary lore of his country, his leisure hours were passed in collecting, both from oral tradition, and from existing ballads, an abundance of the curious materials which subsequently formed the subjects of his poems and novels. He was made sheriff of Selkirkshire, 1799, and had gradually become known to the world by his 'Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border,' 'Lay of the Last Minstrel,' and 'Marmion;' for the copyright of which he was known to have received unusually large sums from the booksellers.

In 1814 appeared an anonymous novel, called *Waverley*; in three months after which every one was inquiring the name of the author, and every one consequently bought the book. The only answer, however, that could be obtained was, that a northern schoolmaster, who lived in utter seclusion, and was supposed to be an exile, had written it, and would write more; in proof of which two novels were almost regularly sent forth into the world, under the cloak of the author of *Waverley*, each year, until 1831, the series being collectively styled 'the *Waverley Novels*,' from the title of the first. King George IV., in admiration of the poetical powers of Mr. Scott, created him a baronet; in 1822 the poet acted as grand master of the ceremonies in receiving the monarch at Edinburgh; and, soon after, he was made one of the deputy-lieutenants of Roxburgh, where his estate of Abbotsford, on which he had expended 100,000*l*., was situate. The life of Buonaparte was in progress from his pen in 1825, when Messrs. Constable, his publishers, became bankrupt; and as Sir Walter had been in the habit of drawing bills at long dates upon them, for the payment of the copyrights of his works, and had been occasionally accommodated with their acceptances, in reference to works not yet written, he considered it a matter of gratitude to give his name to other obligations in their behalf, and was consequently

declared a partner. He was thus rendered liable to the general engagements of the firm; painfully illustrating the observation of lord Clarendon, 'That most men are slaves, because they cannot pronounce the monosyllable 'No!'' He now openly acknowledged himself author of the *Waverley* novels, and at fifty-five sat down to redeem, if possible, a debt amounting to more than 100,000*l*.! No less than 50,000*l*. were raised by such means in five years. But unwearied application compelled sir Walter to desist from his labours in a way which, though expected by all his friends, was very generally lamented: a paralytic seizure, slight in its first effects, arrested his hand, and his physicians advised a residence for a while in Italy. The king, with his usual consideration, allowed him to be carried thither in the ship of war *Barham*; but even a sight of classic Rome, and the honours paid to him there, failed to give him pleasure: he felt that he was dying, even in the capitol, and desired fervently to return to his own land. On his arrival in London, he was nearly in a state of insensibility; and although he sufficiently recovered, to express his hope that he might expire at Abbotsford, and raised himself in the carriage when he reached the spot which could first give him a view of his beloved abode, he had relapsed again into a stupor ere he came to the house. After lingering two months, with few intervals of consciousness, mortification ensued, and he died September 21, 1832, aged 61.

The literary character of Scott rests exclusively upon his power of combining and embellishing past events, and his skill in painting human nature. Whether he writes in verse or in prose, the same magician is still at work, calling from the tomb the identical heroes of past days, or delineating with the pencil of truth the characters of every-day life. Although his poetry is deficient in the imagination requisite to claim

for the author unqualified commendation, the Scottish people find a constant charm in his descriptions of local scenery and habits, into which they affirm none but themselves can enter, and which they extol, as passing in sublimity any thing in other authors. As an English novel-writer, sir Walter Scott claims, without doubt, the highest place. He was the founder of a new school in literature; and his skilful pen has mingled history in such a manner with romance, as to give a relish for researches into the annals of our own and other countries, which has already led to very beneficial consequences amongst the young. Like a writer of fiction, he paints his heroes rather as they ought to have been, than as they were; and for chivalry's sake, has attributed as much virtue as is due to the semi-barbaric middle ages. As such productions as the *Waverley* novels have their utility, we may assert as a truth, that the novels of Scott, while they have cheered many a vacant hour, have soothed many a weary, and guarded many a dangerous one. Pain and languor have fled before the magic spell which has been enabled to transform the chamber of sleepless disease into the court, the camp, or the vine-clad cottage; and although such reading be not the prescribed remedy for sorrow, nor the authorized occupation of the chamber of sickness, yet that may be permitted as a palliative, which we know cannot act as a remedy, and that as an honest recreation which is not a worthy employment.

GEORGE, LORD BYRON (1788—1824), the most gifted poet of his day, was son of a captain in the guards, and succeeded his great uncle in his title, while a schoolboy, 1798. He was brought up in narrow circumstances and seclusion at Aberdeen, by his mother, who had been deserted by her husband; and being very weakly when young, and deformed in one foot, he was allowed, until nearly ten, instead of going to

any place of education, to rove upon the hills, that he might brace his limbs, a circumstance which, with his parent's peculiar temper, considerably influenced his future life. Both at Harrow and Cambridge, he displayed a great repugnance to discipline of every sort; and quitting the university at nineteen, he took up his abode at his hereditary seat, Newstead Abbey. Here his *Hours of Idleness* appeared in 1807; and the Edinburgh Review having unjustly criticized the performance, his English Bards and Scotch Reviewers came forth, and with much of the spirit of revenge, put down his assailant. Having greatly injured both fortune and health by early dissipation, he determined to travel; and in 1809, accompanied by his friend Mr. Hobhouse, he proceeded by the south of Spain to the Mediterranean, Greece, and Turkey, of which tour his *Childe Harold* gives a sufficiently accurate account. This poem laid the foundation of his fame; the mere circumstance of being himself the hero, marked as the character is with wayward libertinism, and with a misanthropy consequent upon having exhausted every resource of earthly enjoyment, occasioned vast popularity; and the young lord was courted on all sides, and admired and admonished in turn by such in the fashionable world as declared an interest in his behalf. He now married the daughter of Sir Ralph Milbanke; but the careless system of splendour which succeeded his union having dissipated a large portion of his wife's fortune, disputes ensued; and when the lady had returned to her father's house, lord Byron quitted England, 1816, a second time, and for ever. It was then that he wrote his 'Farewell,' one of the most pathetic and elegantly expressed valedictory productions in our tongue. He passed the Rhine to Venice, whence he sent for publication to England his *Manfred*, *Sardanapalus*, *Don Juan*, and other works, remarkable for that licence of remark, mis-

anthropy, and hatred of country, which must ever be a check upon their circulation. It was in the autumn of 1823, after visiting Paris, that the poet began to indulge his feelings towards the Greeks, who were struggling for independence. Landing at Cefalonia, he sent 12,000*l.* for the relief of Missolonghi; and arriving at that town soon after, he was received with every mark of honour that Grecian gratitude could devise. His presence, although it mitigated the ferocity with which the insurgents conducted the war, could not heal the dissensions of the leaders; and even when he raised a brigade of Saliotcs, and agreed to pay 500 of them out of his own purse, he was obliged to disband them for their mutinous conduct. So unexpected a state of things brought on the poet a fit of epilepsy; but although advised by his physician to quit Missolonghi for the healthy air of Zante, he refused, and wrote a letter to a friend, wherein is a passage indicative, one would readily suppose, of a singularly ambitious spirit. 'I cannot quit Greece,' he writes, 'while there is a chance of my being of utility. *There is a stake worth millions*; such as I am, and while I can stand at all, I must stand by the cause.' Whatever, however, were the ultimate hopes of lord Byron, either for himself or the Greeks, the cause was soon doomed to lose its champion; for, acquiring a severe fever by an exposure to the wet, the poet died, aged thirty-six, on the 19th of April, 1824.

No one can deny the praise of genius to lord Byron; and as a pathetic poet he is almost without a rival. Selfishness, however, is eminently conspicuous in all he wrote; and, what is worse, scarcely one of his larger works is free from allusions and images highly offensive to decency, and corrupting to the youthful mind. The tone of raillery throughout his productions, is but a flimsy veil to conceal gross profligacy of sentiment; and Byron could least of

all men say, there was 'no line which, dying, he should wish to blot.' Ardent in spirit, his lordship was of that class of men of genius who, in the contemplation of times and scenes long past, and in the more mad pursuit of pleasures to come, constantly forget the time in hand, until all is regret, remorse, and despair. Like Hebrew verbs, such men have no *present* tense, and are of the *past* and *future* only. And surely, when we see so many in whom great talents have been conspicuous, live and die like Byron, genius is to be regarded as any thing but a blessing. Small consolation indeed is it to reflect, with a poet of similar waywardness, that the misleading star is, like Lucifer, a star, occupying, at least for a time, a place in heaven.

'Mised by fancy's meteor ray,
By passion driv'n;
But yet that light which led astray
Was light from heaven!'

Great personal and mental gifts are certainly the means and materials of happiness, if properly used—that is, when they are exercised in conformity with our religious and moral duties. Otherwise they are only so many snares and temptations, which bad passions and unruly tempers, or even negligence, may render as mischievous, nay ruinous to our temporal and eternal interests, as the right use of them would have conducted to our honour and felicity.

CHARLES MAURICE TALLEYRAND DE PERIGORD, one of the most extraordinary instruments of the great French revolution, was born at Paris of a high family, 1754. He was club-footed, and on that account treated with little affection by the members of his house; he, however, took orders, and his splendid talents procured him such rapid advancement, that at the age of thirty-four he was made bishop of Autun. On the assembly of the States-general, in 1789, the bishop was returned thereto by the clergy of his diocese, and, to the surprise and indignation of the royal party, pro-

posed the abolition of tithes, and the confiscation of all clerical property; both which measures he saw speedily carried. In vain did the clergy who had returned him to the assembly remonstrate with him on his unnatural conduct: he projected numerous other sweeping reforms, and became so popular with the levelling factions, that he was deputed by the mayor of Paris to officiate at what was termed the Federation of the 14th of July, 1790. On that day immense crowds assembled in the Champ de Mars; the king, queen, and court were present under a tent; and at an altar prepared for mass was seen, clad in his episcopal attire, and attended by 200 priests in white linen with tri-coloured ribbons, M. Talleyrand, who, amidst a hurricane of wind, and a deluge of rain, celebrated mass, and consecrated both the royal standard, and the flags of the eighty-three departments, which waved over the altar. Upon his consecration, soon after, of the constitutional bishops and clergy, the pope excommunicated him 'as a sacrilegious wretch;' whereupon Talleyrand relinquished his sacerdotal office, and turned his mind henceforward to secular affairs. While on an embassy in England from Louis XVI., 1792, Talleyrand was denounced by the republicans as a royalist; and when hesitating whether he should return to France, was formally outlawed. The death of Louis, and the sudden ordinance of the British government for his departure from England, drove him to America, 1794; whence he was recalled in two years by the Directory, and made minister of foreign affairs. He had resigned that post on Buonaparte's return from Egypt, and when reinstated by the consul, laboured to make peace with Germany and England, which latter he effected by the treaty of Amiens. He was made grand chamberlain and prince of Benevento, when Napoleon was declared emperor; but being displaced in 1807 for advocating peace, he retired to

his estate of Valençay, to which place Buonaparte sent him in custody the king of Spain and his brother (as at p. 136), charging him to keep them safely. Napoleon is said to have thus made him the jailer of the Spanish family, in revenge for his constant opposition to the French invasion of the Peninsula. In 1813 he was anxiously recalled to fill his old post of foreign minister; but no political skill could avert the fall of Napoleon, obstinately opposed as he was to make concessions that alone could save him. When every branch of government was in utter confusion, through the waywardness of the emperor, M. Talleyrand emphatically exclaimed, '*C'est le commencement du fin!*' and became actively instrumental in the restoration of the Bourbons, which was effected 1814. Louis XVIII. again made him foreign secretary, and created him a peer, as prince de Talleyrand; but he did not long remain in office, and was wholly detached from public life during the brief sway of Charles X., after whose deposition he took the oath of allegiance to Louis Philippe, exclaiming—'*C'est le treizième! Dieu accorde qu'il soit le dernier!*' Of the Bourbons he used frequently to say that, during their twenty-five years' exile, '*ils n'avaient rien appris, comme ils n'avaient rien oublié.*' The prince acted as ambassador on one occasion from Louis Philippe to king William IV., and died, aged eighty-four, 1838; wisely enjoining, in his last will, that his memoirs, compiled by himself, should not be given to the public until thirty years after his decease. The dukedom of Dino, conferred on the prince by the king of Sicily, 1815, he ceded before his death to his nephew, Alexander, having no issue of his own. Talleyrand was a lineal descendant of the princess d'Ursino, mentioned vol. ii. 423; and his family were once sovereigns of Perigord, in France.

During his last illness, king Louis Philippe visited the prince; and there

was an attendant levée, as in the old regime, to witness the great minister's death, after the manner of the days of Louis XIV. and XV. 'Towards the middle of the day,' says an eye-witness, 'the prince began to grow more restless and feverish. I could not resist the temptation of seeking relief from the stifled air of that close chamber, and passed through to the drawing-room. I was verily astounded at the scene which there met my eyes. Never shall I forget the impression produced by the transition from that silent room,—that bed of suffering,—to the crowded apartment, where troops of friends—all the *élite* of the society of Paris—were assembled. There was a knot of busy politicians, with ribbons at their button-holes,—some with powdered heads, some with bald heads,—gathered around the blazing fire. I observed, too, some of the diplomatist's oldest friends, who had come hither from real and sincere attachment, and who took no part in the eager debates of the political champions. In one corner was seated a coterie of ladies, discussing topics entirely foreign to the time and place. Sometimes a low burst of light laughter would issue from among them, in spite of the reprimanding 'Chuts,' which, upon these occasions, rose from the further end of the room. On a sofa, near the window, lay extended at full length, the youthful and lovely duchess de V., with a bevy of young beaux, all 'jeune France,' kneeling on the carpet beside her, or sitting low at her feet on the cushion of the divan. The scene was altogether one of other times. It seemed as though the lapse of centuries might be forgotten, and that we were carried back at a bound to the days of Louis Quatorze, and to the death-bed of Mazarin. At length, however, the conversation ceased, and every eye was turned towards the slowly-opening door of the prince's chamber. A domestic entered with downcast looks and swollen eyes. In an instant every one was on the alert,

and there was a simultaneous rush to the door of the apartment. M. de Talleyrand was at that moment seated on the side of the bed, supported in the arms of his secretary. It was evident that death had set his seal upon that marble brow; yet was I struck with the still-existing vigour of the countenance. It seemed as if all the life which had once sufficed to furnish forth the whole being were now centered in the brain. From time to time he raised his head with a sudden movement, shaking back the long grey locks which impeded his sight, and gazed around; and then, satisfied with the result of his examination of that crowded room, a triumphant smile would pass across his features, and his head would again fall upon his bosom. If there be truth in the assertion, that it is a satisfaction to die amid the tears and lamentations of multitudes of friends and hosts of relatives, then indeed must his last feeling towards the world he was for ever quitting, have been one of entire approbation and content for he expired amid regal pomp and reverence; and of all those whom he, perhaps, would himself have called together, none were wanting. The aged friend of his maturity, the fair young idol of his age, were gathered on bended knee beside his bed; and if the words of comfort, whispered from the book by the ministering priest, failed to reach his ear, it was because their sound was stifled by the louder wailings of those whom in life he had loved so well.' In the presence of this large assembly did the prince expire; but his remains were interred in the chapel of his estate at Valençay, without the slightest pomp or parade.

ROBERT STEWART, VISCOUNT CASTLEREAGH, held the important office of secretary-at-war from 1812 until 1822, being the chief minister for England in continental affairs during the last years of Napoleon. He was an energetic and indefatigable statesman, though seldom popular amongst the middle and lower

classes in the empire, on account of his attachment to ancient forms and institutions, and his marked dislike of the modern spirit of innovation. During a nervous illness, brought on by incessant application during the arduous session of 1824, he put a period to his existence at his seat, North Cray in Kent, in August of that year, at the age of 55, having just before succeeded his father as marquis of Londonderry.

GEORGE CANNING, son of an unfortunate literary man, after an education at Eton, and Christ church, Oxford, obtained a seat in parliament through lord Lansdowne. The death of lord Castlereagh, 1824, placed him a second time in the office of foreign secretary; and, on the decease of lord Liverpool, he was made premier, 1827. Being in ill health at this period, from a cold caught at the funeral of the duke of York, he was unable to bear the excitement which a very spirited opposition caused him; and in August of the same year he died, aged 56. More inclined to shape his course to the spirit of the times, than lord Castlereagh, and regarding expediency too often as right, Mr. Canning was applauded by a large party in the nation. As an orator he was eloquent, and classically correct; and his satirical power was so irresistible, that it often insured him the victory. He wrote much in the periodicals of the day; and 'Elijah's Mantle,' on the death of Mr. Pitt, whose principles he had originally upheld, was long a popular specimen of his poetry.

JOHN SCOTT, EARL OF ELDON, and his brother, William lord Stowell, two singular examples of the advantages which high talents possess over birth in a free country, were sons of a worthy person engaged in the coal trade at Newcastle-upon-Tyne; and being enabled by the aid of a friend to complete at University college, Oxford, the liberal education commenced at the freeschool of their native town, rose both of them to high rank in the law. William, the

elder, became judge of the Consistory Court of London, and a baron; and John, the younger, lord high chancellor of England, and an earl. On raising the latter to the peerage, 1821, king George IV. commanded that, in the patent granting him the titles of viscount Encombe, and earl of Eldon, it should be recited, 'that his majesty conferred the same, in consideration of his profound knowledge of the laws of his country, and of the distinguished ability and integrity which he has invariably evinced in administering them in his office of chancellor, during a period of nineteen years.' Lord Stowell died, aged 91, 1836, and lord Eldon, aged 87, 1837.

JOHN JEBB, son of an alderman of Drogheda, after an education at Trinity college, Dublin, became rector of Abington in Ireland, and an archdeacon. In 1821 he joined Mr. Costello, the catholic clergyman of his own parish, in calling upon the inhabitants to refrain from joining the secret political associations then forming to separate Ireland from Great Britain; and on a Sunday in December, Mr. Costello having summoned his flock to his chapel, he there, at the altar, presented to them Mr. Jebb, who, in an address which occupied some time, earnestly entreated them to remain faithful to their king and country. The matter was noticed in the British parliament; and few similar attempts having been made to unite the opposing creeds in a stand for the laws, Mr. Jebb was, in 1823, chosen to fill the then vacant see of Limerick. The whole labour of this worthy prelate's life, beyond the duties of his diocese, was to promote the union of parties in Ireland; and he constantly urged, as well in his seat in parliament, as in his writings and by his example, that more good would be effected with the Irish catholics, and more conversions made amongst them, by displaying before them, without controversy, the superior beauty and simplicity of a purified form of faith, than by all the

attempts at coercion in the world. He warmly supported emigration from Ireland, as a means of relieving the country; and predicted that, by degrees, under a determined wish for conciliation shown by the protestant side, tranquillity, which had been so long absent from the island, would be eventually re-established. Towards the close of his valuable life, bishop Jebb was deprived of the use of his right arm by a paralytic stroke: that affection, however, he survived several years, and died at Wandsworth, Surrey, 1833, aged 59. As a preacher and senatorial speaker, Dr. Jebb was celebrated for perspicuity and logical force; and though it was his lot to have his main friendships amongst the evangelical party in the English church, it is singular that no divine ever displayed more his attachment to high-church principles.

REGINALD HEBER (1783—1826), born at Malpas, Cheshire, was the son of a divine, and educated at Brazenose college, Oxford. An English prize poem, entitled 'Palestine,' brought him into notice, and an essay 'On the Sense of Honour' occasioned his election to a fellowship at All Souls. After taking orders, he travelled in Russia, Germany, and the Crimea, and on his return was presented to the family living of Hodnet, Salop, and married dean Shipley's daughter. In 1815 he preached the Bampton lecture on 'The Personality and Office of the Christian Comforter,' published soon after a life of Jeremy Taylor, and in 1822 was chosen preacher to the society of Lincoln's-inn, the usual stepping-stone to high preferment. On the decease of Dr. Middleton, he was offered the see of Calcutta; and after hesitating some time for private reasons, he accepted it, and sailed for India, 1823. On Ascension-day, 1824, he held his first visitation in the cathedral of Calcutta; and he subsequently made progresses through various parts of his vast diocese, consecrating churches, &c. While on a similar journey, he arrived at Ti-

rutchinopoli, April 1, 1826; and on the next morning he was found dead in a bath (which he was accustomed to use before breakfast), having been seized with apoplexy, in his 43d year. His 'Narrative of a Journey, through the Upper Provinces of India, from Calcutta to Bombay,' was published by his widow, and is an interesting work. The bishop was an amiable man, but, from an early low-church bias, entertained a most uncatholic, and therefore unchristian enmity, towards his Romish brethren. This is strongly instanced by his letter to the Syrian bishop of St. Thomas, on the Malabar coast; wherein he curiously incites him and his flock to a sort of revolt against a power which first planted Christianity in India on that very spot.

SIR JAMES ALLAN PARK (1763—1838), an eminent judge, was born at Edinburgh, (where his father practised in medicine with great reputation); and after a liberal education, came, under the patronage of the earl of Mansfield, to London, where he devoted himself to the study of law. Having completed the usual course of terms, he was called to the bar, 1785, and soon acquired notice by his acuteness in mercantile law, and in cases of marine insurance. The incorruptible integrity of his principles, and his manly eloquence in defence of injured female virtue, drew upon him the royal notice; and in 1816 he was raised to a judgeship of the common-pleas. After presiding on the bench two and twenty years, with equity and dignity, he died, after a brief but severe illness, aged 75, 1838. To those who knew this excellent man in private life, a few words on the manner in which he adorned society will not be unacceptable. Having originally come to the metropolis stored with good principles, he observed how easily young men, less fortified than himself, were caught in its innumerable snares. To warn such, therefore, of their danger, to urge them along the paths of religion and virtue, by the

aid, not only of his advice, but of his purse, and to extricate them, if possible, when they had fallen into difficulties, became, so soon as he saw himself prosper in his profession, his darling labour; and numerous at this hour are they who live indebted to that labour (under God) for their virtue. To his dying day the same Christian love of his species possessed him. In urbanity no man surpassed him. To every appeal he listened, whether of the necessitous, or the aggrieved; freely and with singular promptitude gave both his money and his opinion; and affectionately enjoined, as required, either patience, or exertion, or hope. To no man could more admirably apply the 'his dat qui cito dat.' *He regarded it a sin not to answer a letter*, even from the importunate; and notwithstanding the claims of his profession on his time, ever answered with promptitude. The 'first post' was his favourite one. As a supporter of the church of England, he was a most exemplary person. Alike removed from fanatical zeal and lukewarmness, he was a sound Anglo-catholic, in the strictest sense of the term; and he associated and formed friendships with some of the most enlightened prelates and other divines of his day. Of the sister episcopal church of Scotland he was (see vol. ii. 179.) the substantial friend in need. As the promoter of public charities, he was ever on the alert; and his paternal regard for one of them, the Magdalen, has mainly tended, under God, to place that most benevolent institution out of the reach of fortune. Though he loved, as far as virtue might, the elevation of rank, and the refinements of good society, to which he had always been habituated, he abominated *pride*; and the 37th psalm was usually referred to by him when privately counselling his young friends, as the triumph of an humble heart over the selfishness, boastfulness, and tyranny of earthly grandeur. 'Mark me,' said he to a youth, whom he was thus paternally

advising; 'ever be good, and try to be great,—but never be proud: again and again I have passed where the proud great man had been—I sought him—but his place could nowhere be found!' But it was in his home, and in the bosom of his own family (that truest test of character) that he was to be seen to perfection. There did that Christian philanthropy, that beautiful solicitude for the wants of his fellow-creatures, have its source; his continual effort to make every one love him at home, was but the well-spring of that ample stream of benevolence, which flowed forth with deep but tranquil waters to diffuse the fruits of joy and peace abroad. 'To see judge Park,' said the late estimable bishop Van Mildert in the author's presence, 'in his home, and with his family around him, is to see a Christian gentleman performing every apostolical injunction as affects society, with ardour.' A treatise on the 'Law of Marine Insurance,' (now regarded as authority on the subject), a memoir of his friend William Stevens (see *Stevens*), delightful for its cheerful piety and Waltonian simplicity, and a tract on the 'Sacrament,' are the chief published works of this most estimable man.

THE HONOURABLE PHILIP PUSEY (1745—1828), thirteenth child of the first viscount Folkestone, and brother of the first earl of Radnor, was educated at Eton and Oxford. His family name was Bouverie; but in conformity with the will of Mrs. Allen, sister and co-heir of John Pusey, esq., he changed it, by royal sign-manual, for that of Pusey, 1784. The whole life of this nobleman was a career of Christian benevolence. A sound member of the Anglo-catholic church, his labour was to aid her to the best of his ability; and, among many serviceable tracts which he published, his 'Communion Office, with Prayers,' had great success, and has run through many editions. His purse was ever open to the needy; and there were few benevolent institu-

tions existing in the time of Mr. Pusey in England, which did not register his name as a munificent patron. Of many of the best of those public charities in the metropolis, he was a leader and director; and the Magdalen owes to him and his family, under God, much of its present success. Mr. Pusey married Lucy, daughter of Robert, earl of Harborough, and widow of sir Robert Cave, bart.; his second son, by whom is the present estimable and learned regius professor of Hebrew at Oxford, Dr. Edward Bouverie Pusey, born 1800. The hon. Mr. Pusey died, aged 83, 1828.

ALEXANDER BENNETT (1737—1818), lineally descended from sir John Bennett, the ancestor of the Tankerville family, held a patent office in the Exchequer-office, and was many years treasurer both of the Magdalen charity and Morden college (for decayed Turkey merchants), Blackheath—being, on his mother's side, a descendant of sir John Morden, the founder of the latter. Like that of his friend, the hon. Mr. Pusey, his life was marked by a most benevolent spirit; and he devoted a large portion of his handsome annual income to the relief of the necessitous—employing almoners often, that his name might not be used. This conduct of Mr. Bennett and of his before-named friend, is here mentioned, merely to show that there is no people who can be said more rigidly to put in practice than the English, the injunction of the Saviour of mankind, 'Do not your alms before men, to be seen of them.' As nations, for the virtues and crimes of the individuals that compose them, can only be rewarded or punished in their collective state, and in a temporal manner, it is not going too far to express an opinion, therefore, that Britain, for the unexampled private and silent beneficence of the rich to the poor, far exceeding in annual sterling value the relief (vast in amount of money as that is) afforded by more obvious channels, was favoured by a gracious Providence,

throughout a reign alike remarkable for its duration and its political struggles, by not only an exemption from the horrors of intestine war, but by its extraordinary rise in wealth, general prosperity, and power. Mr. Bennett died of a sudden illness, when at an inn, on his way home from a short residence in Kent, aged 81, 1818.

JOHN PRINCE (1753—1833), born in London, and maternally descended from admiral Blake, completed his education at Oriel college, Oxford, and took holy orders (being ordained deacon by bishop Lowth, 1776. His friendship with the unhappy Dr. Dodd led him to take a great interest in the welfare of the Magdalen charity; and in 1789, twelve years after the ignominious end of the doctor, he was chosen chaplain and secretary of that benevolent institution. Dr. Dodd's conduct had nearly brought ruin upon the charity; and the chapel subscriptions, at the time of Mr. Prince's election, rarely amounted to a guinea on the Sunday,—it being then the practice to allow places of divine worship belonging to the established church, that were extra-parochial, as is the Magdalen chapel, to defray their costs by receiving the voluntary contributions of the congregation on admission. Tickets, purchased in the week at the shops, had been, in Dr. Dodd's time, the media of entrance; but the plan was now changed, and the receipts gradually rose, between 1790 and 1815, from less than a guinea, as aforesaid, to thirty, forty, fifty, and occasionally even sixty pounds, per Sunday. It might be imagined, by those unacquainted with the order preserved in the chapel arrangements, that the Magdalen congregations were, from this extraordinary amount of door-subscriptions, of a peculiar character; that the people who composed them were, in fact, fashionable loungers, and more like those who form the audiences of the theatres, than such as go to the house of prayer to worship in sincerity and

truth. But such was not the fact. Very many titled persons, and occasionally members of the royal family, attended the chapel, especially in the evenings; but the main assemblage was unvarying as to the people composing it, and indeed no parish church had a less shifting flock. As to the manner and order of divine service, nothing but the most orthodox high-church arrangement was therein allowed in Mr. Prince's time. The whole tenor was in conformity with the rubric, and approached, on occasion, as much as possible, that of an university chapel, and the service of cathedrals. It is true there were attractions; but they were of the allowed and simplest kind. There was admirable music, a good organist, sweet voices, and Handel's wished-for harmony. There was, without exception, the best reader of the church of England's beautiful liturgy in the desk—the chaplain himself. Soon after ordination, Mr. Prince's reading had been listened to with surprise and gratification by Garrick himself; insomuch that the actor begged his own and Mr. Prince's friend, the rev. Mr. Townley, to introduce him to the young divine. At Mr. Townley's table the meeting accordingly took place, 1777; and so extraordinary was the pleasure expressed by Mr. Garrick, that he took upon him to note down the mode in which Mr. Prince read certain passages he had proposed to him—not in Shakspeare or any other of the dramatists—but in the Bible and the book of Common Prayer. Subsequently was published, 'Mr. Garrick's Method of Reading the Church Service.' There was also another source of attraction at the Magdalen. Besides two talented evening preachers, of orthodox sentiments, Mr. Mathew, afterwards vicar of Greenwich, and Mr. Stevens, subsequently dean of Rochester, the whole range of leading divines of our church were heard, in a sort of succession, in its pulpit; and if a certain small portion of the congregation—the shifting part

—*did* venture to come with 'itching ears,' in the mere hankering after novelty and change, they usually went away from the sterling old church-of-England discourses they heard preached there, with 'tingling' ones. It was the frequent remark of the prelates, as well as of the other orders of the clergy who thus occasionally officiated, 'that they never remembered to have noticed a more devout, attentive, or generally well-ordered assemblage in any place of divine worship.' It is not going too far to say, that much of this order and success were, under God, attributable to the exertions of the chaplain; the labour of whose life was to find friends for the charity, and to consult by day and night for its best interests. That he was splendidly aided in the work by some of the best of men, foremost among whom, were the hon. Mr. Pusey, and judge Park, is also true. His more immediate spiritual occupation, in reference to the wants of the inmates of the establishment, can never be duly estimated by the world. It is enough that numerous are the hearts which still, in every prayer to heaven, mingle the remembrance of him who first drew them from the dominion of vice, and encouraged them in the great task of repentance.

Mr. Prince had been presented to the vicarage of Gray's Thurrock by his kinsman, John Button, esq., 1784; but he resigned it in 1793 for that of Enford, Wilts, where his name will long be remembered for having obtained private subscriptions enough among his town friends, to rebuild the church, which had been nearly destroyed by the fall on it of its steeple, when struck by lightning during a storm in 1817; as well as for his founding in the parish, with competent funds, a Sunday school. As the chaplain of 'Nobody's Club' (see *William Stevens*) 1800, he increased an already very large circle of friends, many of them leading members of the church and the law; and he died, as he had lived, vene-

rated for his guileless character and unaffected piety, in his eighty-first year, 1833. His remains were interred at St. Mark's, Kennington; and, out of respect for his services, were attended to the grave by all the leading governors of the Magdalen charity.

Some single sermons, a valuable series of critiques on Handel's music as performed at the Hanover-square concerts, (for he was a scientific lover of music,) and an edition (of singular accuracy) of the 'Gradus ad Parnasum,' with numerous fresh examples, were Mr. Prince's only published works. Of his clerical reading a slight description may be given. It was far removed from theatrical display, essentially natural, and accurately adapted in style to the character of the subject—whether narrative, in the form of harangue, precatory, minatory, didactic, or other. In the affectionate diction of parts of the Eucharistic office, its effect was soothing, elevating; in those of the baptismal, it was convincing, spirited, and as of the ambassador of Christ; in the announcing of the decalogue, most dignified and authoritative; in the burial service, solemn and touching in the extreme. None but those who regularly attended the Magdalen service, could form a notion of the effect produced by his impressive reading of the accustomed prayers, varied as was his tone and expression, according as the respective portions of the liturgy demand such change. And, in the lessons of the day, so marked was often the influence upon the general mind of the congregation, it frequently occurred at the close of each, that no one rose—the people remaining riveted to their seats, as if in contemplation of what they had seen rather than heard. Numerous were they who came forward to declare that, until they witnessed this chaste recitation of the service, they had never felt the divine character of the English liturgy; and very many were known to come regularly from considerable distances — persons of

consideration and piety, as well as of taste—to be present when certain chapters in the four Evangelists, and in the Acts of the Apostles (the latter connected with St. Paul's imprisonments, trials, and defences,—the former with our Lord's betrayal, trial, and death,) were in the day's service.

We have been the more led to this brief exposition of Mr. Prince's style of reading, because we regret to find that, in a recent movement among orthodox churchmen to reform the Anglo-catholic church, an effort which all born in catholicity, who pray for the church in unity, and who hate schism, must fully appreciate and applaud, *good reading* has been somewhat slightly spoken of. It has been enjoined to the clergy to go through the beautiful service of the liturgy piously, but without energy of expression, or variety of tone and manner, lest they should be thought to *act* it. We should hope, however, that the learned and holy men who lead the movement, anxious as they are to make the congregations of our churches go to pray rather than to hear 'the foolishness of preaching,' will be shortly induced to see the matter in its true light; and they may be assured that the comparatively perfect style which we have lauded, free alike from *acting* on the one hand, and from cheerless monotony on the other, would, with the blessing of the great Head and Founder of our faith, as it did through the ministry of the subject of our brief memoir, win many over to walk in the paths of righteousness.

THOMAS PRINCE (1787 — 1830), son of the preceding, completed his education at Wadham college, Oxford, entered into holy orders, 1811, became a fellow of his college, and graduated D.D. In the year of his ordination, he was invited by the duke of Brunswick Oëls to become the preceptor of his two sons, the present reigning duke, and his brother; and during the space of nearly five years, he had unlimited control over

the establishment of the young princes, at Vauxhall, near the metropolis. In 1815 he accompanied his pupils to Brunswick; but soon after lost his patron and friend, their illustrious parent, who fell at Quatre Bras, two days previously to the conflict of Waterloo, and whose corpse Dr. Prince saw carrying from the field to the palace of Lacken, at the moment of his arrival at Brussels, June 16th. Dr. Prince subsequently became chaplain to the duke of Kent, at Brussels, and to the countess of Athlone, at the Hague; and while anticipating preferment from various high quarters, he was seized with an inflammation of the throat (occasioned by exposure on a cold day, after preaching a charity-sermon in the metropolis), which terminated his life in a few days at Brompton, in his 43d year, 1830. The only published production of Dr. Prince (who died a bachelor) was a series of 'Lectures on the Beatitudes.'

FRANCIS HENRY EGERTON, eighth and last earl of Bridgewater, who died in 1829, placed 8000*l.* at the disposal of the president of the Royal Society, to be paid to such persons as he should appoint; each of such persons being bound to write, print, and publish, 1000 copies of a work on the power, wisdom, and goodness of God, as manifested in the creation. The president, with the advice of the archbishops and bishops, agreed on selecting eight men of talent for the work, and the lot fell upon the following: 1. *Whewell*, who took astronomy and general physics, considered with reference to natural theology; 2. *Buckland*, geology and mineralogy; 3. *Bell*, the human hand; 4. *Rogee*, animal and vegetable physiology; 5. *Prout*, chemistry, meteorology, and the functions of digestion; 6. *Chalmers*, adaptation of external nature to man's moral and intellectual constitution; 7. *Kidd*, the adaptation of external nature to man's physical condition; 8. *Kirby*, the history, habits, and instinct of animals. There will ever be various opinions, accord-

ing to the multitudinous tastes of mankind, as to the peculiar merits of the respective 'Bridgewater Treatises;' but it is certainly a question whether, as a whole, they have not, from their uniform attempt 'ad captandum,' their unqualified popular construction, failed in effecting the object (if we understand that rightly) of the well-intentioned but eccentric nobleman, whose bequest has given them existence. There is a vast deal in each of them to interest and please the mind of the general reader; but, considering the authors, there is an extraordinary paucity of all that which we should have thought the subject offered for exposition demanded.

HUMPHRY DAVY (1778—1829), the most distinguished chemist of his age, was born at Penzance, and, in his twentieth year, commenced his career of experiment. Resolving to ascertain the properties of nitrous oxide (since called laughing-gas,) he inhaled it, at the risk of filling his lungs with aqua-fortis, a deadly poison to all animals; and after experiencing its exciting effects, as respects rapid locomotion, and boisterous laughter, he breathed it in so concentrated a state, as that aqua-fortis was formed in his mouth. When appointed professor of chemistry to the royal institution, 1801, his lectures, both on account of his bold experiments, and fascinating oratory, were attended by all the rank and talent of the kingdom. Those on agriculture, form a most valuable philosophical work; but his fame especially rests upon his development of the laws of Voltaic Electricity. Although the French were in the midst of a bitter war with us, their Institute granted the professor the First Consul's prize for the greatest electrical discovery. He next proved that the fixed alkalis have metallic bases; a matter which had long engaged the attention of philosophers in search of the causes of earthquakes, &c. He illustrated his theory by decomposing alkalies and earth in a mimic volcano: 'A

mountain (says an eye-witness), had been modelled in clay, and a quantity of the metallic bases introduced into its interior: on water being poured into it, the metals were thrown into violent action, successive explosions followed, red hot lava was seen flowing down its sides from a crater in miniature, lightning played around, and, in the instant of dramatic illusion, the tumultuous applause and cheering of the audience might almost have been regarded as the shouts of the alarmed fugitives of Herculaneum or Pompeii.' In 1812 the professor was knighted; and after a visit to the continent, commenced his celebrated investigation into the nature of fire-damp in coal mines: the result was his safety-lamp. He next devoted much time to the materials for dyeing; and the *drysalting* processes (which prepare the various compounds for the dyers), were very considerably facilitated by his ingenuity. In 1818 he took his departure for Naples, to examine the papyri found in Herculaneum, and if possible, to discover some method of separating the leaves from each other; but his efforts failed, and returning to England, 1820, he was elected president of the royal society. His health soon after began to decline, in consequence of incessant application: so jealous was he of any interruption to his studies, that he would put on one shirt over the other, for appearance sake, rather than lose time in taking off the under one, and would deprive himself of the proper allowance of rest. It was at this period that he published his '*Salmonia*,' a very pleasing book on fishing; and visiting Italy, with a hope of regaining his strength, he wrote his '*Consolations in Travel, or the Last Days of a Philosopher*,' a work which has so much of imagination in it, that a great poet declared, 'had not Davy been a philosopher, he would have been the first poet of his day.' He expired at Geneva, 1829, aged 51.

FELICIA HEMANS, daughter of an Irish gentleman, married and settled

in Wales. After the birth of five sons, her husband deserted her, and she devoted herself to authorship for support: on the death of her mother, she returned to Liverpool, her native city, whence she emigrated to Dublin, and died there, 1835, having only a few months enjoyed the pension of 300*l.* obtained for her by sir Robert Peel. Mrs. Hemans holds a high place amongst the lyric, descriptive, and pathetic poets of our day: her chief fault lies in the frequent adoption of an unauthorized and mechanical metre, which grates on the ear, and constantly draws the reader's attention from the subject.

THOMAS LAWRENCE, born at Bristol, of humble parents, obtained the title of 'the wonderful boy of Devizes,' for painting the portraits of his father's customers, when he kept an inn in that town. At Bath, the young artist started on his own responsibility at fifteen; and being invited to London, on account of his success in guinea-portraits, he soon found himself superior to the class of cheap likeness-painters in the metropolis. His person and manners were attractive; and before he had reached his twentieth year, his reputation for ease and grace of head was fully established. Introduced to George IV., that monarch knighted him, and obtained his admission to the Royal Academy; and, says Mr. Allan Cunningham, 'though eminent painters lived when he commenced, and others equally eminent arose during his career, it cannot be said with truth, that his ascendancy was ever in danger, or that a rival eclipsed his brightness.' The same writer adds, that wealth fell upon him as rain through a sieve; gold poured upon him as it never poured upon painter either before or since; yet he was not only poor, he was embarrassed. He kept no splendid establishment, gave no expensive dinners: he exacted high prices from his sitters, and was paid large sums by engravers for leave to work from

his pictures ; yet he lived from hand to mouth, and died in debt, 1830, aged 60. Sir Thomas will long live in his female portraits, and in the natural ease wherewith he has endued his likenesses generally : he had, without an attempt to flatter, the art of giving an air of quality to all who consented to sit to him.

SAMUEL COLERIDGE, a poet and miscellaneous writer, was born at Bristol, educated at Christ's hospital and Cambridge, and after accompanying sir Alexander Ball, governor of Malta, as secretary, dedicated himself wholly to literary pursuits. In conversational eloquence, Coleridge was unrivalled : and perhaps the soundest proofs of his original mode of thinking, superior to any thing in his published works, might be deduced from a well-digested register of his selected observations on men and things. His mind not bearing to be chained long to any one subject, all his productions are desultory. He died, 1834, aged 61, in the house of his amiable friend, Mr. Gillman, at Highgate.

HANNAH MORE was daughter of a village schoolmaster, at Stapleton, Gloucestershire ; and the friendship of Dr. Stonhouse enabled her to open a seminary for young ladies at Bristol. At eighteen she produced her pastoral drama of 'The Search after Happiness,' at which period she had pupils in her school older than herself. Its success, and the communications of Garrick, induced her to go on as an author ; and her 'Sacred Dramas,' published in 1782, gained her the esteem of Dr. Johnson, and introduced her to a large circle of literary characters. Her 'Strictures on Female Education' induced the royal family to command her to frame some directions for the education of the princess Charlotte, which she accordingly did in 'Hints towards forming the Character of a young Princess ;' and she was soon after enabled to give up her pupils to her sisters, and to enjoy the fruits of her labours. Her religious novel

of 'Cœlebs,' 1809, attracted very general notice, and was translated into French and German : the masculine style of that work is very conspicuous, and bishop Porteus is said to have had a hand in its production. Her 'Essay on the Character and Writings of St. Paul,' written at seventy years of age, is perhaps her best, and certainly, under circumstances, an astonishing work. She died, 1833, aged 88.

CARL VON WEBER, born in Holstein, of wealthy parents, early devoted himself to music. Haydn, and the abbé Vogler, author of that favourite air 'The Request,' were his instructors ; and he was invited, on account of his rising celebrity, to direct the opera both at Prague and Dresden. His 'Der Freischütz' came out at Berlin, 1821 ; and this opera so established his fame, that the emperor of Austria offered him an appointment at Vienna. He visited England to bring out his 'Oberon' at Covent-garden ; but its success was by no means equal to *Der Freischütz*, which is generally allowed to be his best work. While in England, he was seized with symptoms of consumption, and died in London, aged 40, 1826. What is generally known as his 'last waltz' is said not to have been his production.

HENRY HUNT, born at Enford, Wilts, quitted country affairs of one description for those of another ; but although he laboured to settle both with much zeal, he proved himself an incomparably better farmer than politician. That the spirit of reform displayed itself early in his breast, may be gathered from his mode of punishing an Enford peasant-boy, whom he saw beating a donkey unmercifully. He bought the animal of the fellow, and then soundly cudgelled him for ill-using his beast. Having parted with his paternal property, he came to the metropolis, and was soon known as a street orator ; it being by no means unusual to see him haranguing a concourse of persons of the lowest grade,

from the roof of a hackney-coach, or the balcony of a first-floor window. It is almost needless to state that 'reform' was his theme; and though more than once incarcerated for sedition, he eventually got into parliament. It was soon perceptible that Hunt, the member, was a changed man: his style of eloquence, if eloquence it could be called, was little adapted to the British senate: the restraints he was compelled to endure were harassing, and election-expenses, though they fell lightly upon him, still more so. Having, therefore, established himself as a maker of blacking, he found full leisure to pursue his business, when his constituents had failed to send him again as their representative; and he died, 1834, aged 62.

JAMES HOGG, called the Ettrick shepherd, was born at Ettrick, in Scotland, and was a keeper of sheep. After a boyhood of poverty, the poet in embryo found himself at length fourteen, and the proprietor of five shillings, with which he bought a fiddle! He had learned to read; and before eighteen, the life of Wallace, and the 'Gentle Shepherd of Ramsey,' had been perused by him with avidity. He was now resolved on writing ballads; and Walter Scott, when sheriff of Selkirk, encouraged him to publish. The shepherd having once turned author, poetry of all descriptions, with an occasional prose production, issued from his pen. It is enough to say that Hogg was a man of great natural parts; and that his poem of 'The Queen's Wake,' and his prose work of 'The Shepherd's Calendar,' in which deep feeling is everywhere discernible, have fully established his fame. He died 1835.

SIR JOHN LEICESTER, the greatest patron of the native school of painting England ever possessed, permitted the public, under only necessary limitations, to see his unrivalled collection of pictures at all times. He was created baron de Tapley by George IV., and died, aged 65, 1827.

JOHN VON GOETHE, (pronounced *Gayler*,) the German romantic poet, was son of a man of small fortune. The grand duke of Weimar induced him to settle at his court in 1775, and fifty-seven years he remained there, acting for some time as prime minister, and always as a privy-councillor. The work which first raised his reputation was 'Gotz with the Iron Hand,' to which succeeded 'Werther;' and the Germans still regard those and his 'Faust,' amongst the most talented productions in the world. The admirers of Goethe formed a sort of sect, over whom the influence of the poet was extraordinarily great. Napoleon visited him, and gave him the decoration of the legion of honour; and few men of rank or talent, whatever their nation, passed through Weimar, without paying their respects to him. He died, aged 82, 1832.

COMBE, author of the poetical tale, called 'The Tour of Dr. Syntax,' was an unfortunate man, who wrote the work for his support, during an incarceration of twenty years in the king's bench prison. He had the merit of adapting his story to a series of prints, published by Ackermann in a magazine; and the author's own account of the matter is as follows. 'An etching was sent to me every month, and I composed a certain proportion of pages in verse. When the first print was sent to me, I did not know what would be the subject of the second; and in this manner the artist continued designing, and I continued writing, every month for two years, till a work containing nearly 10,000 lines was produced: the artist and the writer having no personal communication with, or knowledge of each other.' As a facile didactic narrative, free from licence of every sort, it deserves much praise, and will probably outlive many more sterling efforts of the muse. Mr. Combe died, 1823.

HUGH CLAPPERTON, son of a Scottish surgeon, accompanied Dr. Oudney, on his appointment as consul to

Bornou, in Africa, 1823. The British government had favoured several previous expeditions to this part of the globe, with the hope that something might be done towards the amelioration of the people, the abolition of the slave-trade, the advancement of geographical science, and the establishment of commercial exchanges. The excursion ended at Sackatoo, the capital of the Felatahs, one Bello being sultan; but while journeying towards that city, the consul was taken ill and died. Captain Clapperton, however, resolved on proceeding alone to the chief city, and was escorted thither by 150 horsemen with drums and trumpets, whom Bello had sent out to welcome him. On his introduction to the sultan, he found him sitting without state upon a small carpet, between two pillars, which supported the thatched roof of a house, not unlike an English cottage. The pillars and the walls were painted blue and white, in the Moorish style; and by the side of the wall was a skreen, and on each side of it an arm-chair, supporting an iron lamp. The sultan bade him hearty welcome, asked a great many questions about Europe, and the prevailing religious distinctions, and whether the English were Nestorians or Socinians? to which, being taken somewhat out of his latitude, Clapperton bluntly replied, 'We are called Protestants.' 'But what are Protestants?' rejoined Bello. 'I attempted,' says our traveller, 'to explain this to him as well as I was able.' The sheikh of the koran was proceeding with other theological questions, but was put to a stop by the sailor's declaring himself not sufficiently versed in religious subtleties to resolve such knotty controversies. On receiving the presents which Clapperton had brought, Bello exclaimed, 'Every thing is wonderful; but you are the greatest curiosity of all!' and then added, 'what can I give that is most acceptable to the king of England?' 'I replied,' says Clapperton, 'the most

acceptable service you can render to the king of England, is to co-operate with his majesty in putting a stop to the slave-trade on the coast. 'What,' said he, 'have you no slaves in England?' 'No: whenever a slave sets his foot in England, he is from that moment free!' 'What do you then for servants?' 'We hire them for a stated period, and give them regular wages.' 'God is great!' he exclaimed, 'you are a beautiful people.' He also appeared anxious to establish a friendly connexion with England, applying for the residence of a consul and a physician at Sackatoo. Clapperton thought this place the most populous town he had met with in all Africa; yet the date of its foundation is not further back than 1805. European articles find their way here; for the same traveller says, that provisions were repeatedly sent him from the sultan's table on pewter dishes with the London stamp; and one day he had meat served up in a white washhand-basin of English manufacture. During his stay at Sackatoo, captain Clapperton collected some interesting information relative to the death of Mungo Park; and the sultan actually marked down the spot on his chart where his vessel was wrecked. Captain Clapperton thought it best to return to England at once, respecting the sultan's desire for the appointment of a new consul, together with a physician; and in April, 1826, he was again at Sackatoo, according to the statement of Mr. James, a merchant residing on the African coast. Here ended all further information respecting the traveller; and two whole years had elapsed, when his servant, Richard Landé, accompanied by a black man of the name of Pascoe, made his appearance at Badagry, and stated that captain Clapperton had died of dysentery in April, 1827, at Sackatoo, where he had been detained five months, in consequence of Bello's war with the sheikh of Bornou. The whole of the captain's journals were saved, and have been subsequently

published. By the investigations of Denham, Oudney, and Clapperton, much new information was gathered respecting the river Niger, and the kingdoms on its banks; but as neither of those travellers had traced it to the ocean, the place of its embouchure was left for future inquirers. That important discovery has since been made by Lander.

THOMAS HOPE, nephew of an opulent Dutch merchant, was a native of England, and after travelling early in the East, resided principally on his beautiful estate in Surrey, the Deepdene. The result of his observations was a novel of very high character, entitled 'Anastasius; or, Memoirs of a Modern Greek;' and there are few books of the kind which contain passages so replete with eloquence, pathos, and nature. The style is much akin to that of Beckford; and the work, although indulging too much in pictures of human passion and depravity, is, as a whole, a classically elegant composition. Mr. Hope died 1831.

JOHN HENRY HOBART, a prelate of New York, of distinguished talent, was one of the greatest ornaments of the remnant of the English church in America. Unwearied in activity, and unwavering in principle, he devoted his life to the promotion of the interests of the church over which he presided. To her he dedicated the native strength of his mind, the treasures of his learning, and the powers of his eloquence; and some notion may be obtained of all these by a perusal of his discourses on the principal events and truths of the 'Redemption.' He died 1830, aged 54.

GEORGE CRABBE, the descriptive poet of humble life, was himself born of poor parents at Aldborough, Suffolk, and had to struggle with nearly actual starvation in his youth. Too delicate to adopt a rustic or even a surgical profession, he resolved on coming to London, with three borrowed pounds in his pocket, to subsist on what he might be able to gain

by writing for the booksellers. No bookseller, however, would aid him; but upon applying by letter to Mr. Burke, that gentleman charitably took him under his roof, and became his patron. Then did lord Thurlow, and others, who had turned a deaf ear to his earnest appeals, venture to befriend him too; while Mr. Dodsley, who had refused to have any thing to do with his poetry, now willingly published for him his 'Library,' owned its talent, and foretold its success. The 'Village' followed, and was equally popular; and upon his patron's introduction of him to the bishop of Norwich, the poet, notwithstanding his defective education, was ordained. Singular to relate, in little more than two years from the day of his quitting Aldborough, a poor and deserted boy, Crabbe returned to that village a successful author; patronized and befriended by some of the leading characters in the kingdom; and a clergyman, with every prospect of preferment in the church. He was soon after made chaplain to the duke of Rutland, and had his abode in the princely halls of Belvoir castle, until lord Thurlow gave him a small benefice in Dorsetshire. For twenty-four years from this period he devoted himself almost exclusively to his clerical duties; his only publication during the time being 'The Newspaper,' in 1787. In 1807, however, came forth 'The Parish Register,' the success of which was very marked; and in his 'Borough,' and 'Tales in Verse,' which followed, there is not the author's characteristic propensity to paint the meaner miseries and vices of human nature. The 'Borough,' although the author discountenanced the belief in his preface, is known to be a free picture of Aldborough, preserving all the striking features of the place, and its then inhabitants. In 1813, soon after losing his amiable wife, his faithful partner for thirty years, he was happy to migrate to Trowbridge, Wilts, the living of which was given him by the young duke of Rutland.

In 1819 came out his 'Tales of the Hall,' for which he received 3000*l*. from Mr. Murray; and in 1822 he died, aged 78, endeared to his parishioners by a continued course of beneficence, pastoral attention, and unaffected urbanity.

JEAN FREDERICK OBERLIN, of Strasburg, was appointed 1767, to the cure of Waldbach, in a high and sterile valley of Alsace. This valley, called Ban de la Roche, contained an hundred families of the most uncivilized people in Europe, who knew little of agriculture, had no roads, and found scarcely wherewithal to support life. In a very few years, he induced this rude race to construct a road to Strasburg: even a bridge was at length built, and the ordinary results of intercourse between a poor and a wealthy, a rude and an intelligent community, were soon felt. The wretched cabins were converted into snug houses, wheel carriages became common, and arts of every kind began to flourish. To improve agriculture was his next attempt; and manuring, and other means of benefiting the soil, together with grafting, trenching, and planting, were soon brought to a degree of perfection, which astonished the poor rustics. He then became the *founder* of infant schools. Engaging with some friends to erect a building at his and their joint cost, he resolved on instructing the young.†
 est of his flock in the principles of religion and morality, having discovered, as all do who pay attention to the development of the human faculties, that habits begin much earlier than the world is accustomed to believe, and that the facility with which mature education may be conducted, mainly depends upon the impressions which the infant mind has received. The result was beneficial beyond his most sanguine expectations. As nothing was taught but of an useful nature, all Oberlin's rising flock bid fair to be good farmers and artisans; the sacred nature of an oath was fully impressed on their minds; and all that their benevolent friend

could effect for ensuring their future religious and moral welfare, was done. At the period of his death in 1826, at the age of 85, the good man saw the valley increased vastly in population, and agriculture everywhere thriving; a gratifying proof of what one man may effect, when resolutely fixed to his purpose.

WILLIAM COBBETT, son of a poor farmer at Farnham, Surrey, after acting as a labourer, then as a lawyer's clerk, enlisted in a regiment of foot, which was soon sent to Nova Scotia. For his good conduct, he was made first a corporal, and then sergeant-major; and returning to England 1791, obtained his discharge, and instantly accused four officers of his late regiment of peculation. When the day of court-martial, however, arrived, and witnesses were brought from all parts, Cobbett was nowhere to be found;—he had fled to France, and there remained six months, till he escaped to New York, in America. In 1794 he was again heard of as a political writer, under the false name of Peter Porcupine; but to avoid the penalty of the law for his libels, he again crossed to England 1800, and there managed to establish a periodical work, entitled 'The Political Register,' and perhaps no production of the sort ever had so extensive a circulation for so long a period of time. One ground of its popularity is to be looked for, in the language being framed out of the Saxon portion of English, in conformity with the author's ignorance and hatred of 'popish Latin derivatives.' The English language consists of about 38,000 words, inclusive of radicals and derivatives, except the preterites and participles of verbs, words obsolete (though usually seen in our dictionaries), and foreign words that have never been actually denizenized. Of these 38,000, full five-eighths (or 23,000) are of Anglo-Saxon origin; while the majority of the rest are Latin and Greek, and most of that majority Latin. As, therefore, the Anglo-Saxon portion of the vernacular tongue forms its

principal strength, it is not improbable that the readers of the 'Political Register,' who were mostly of the *Gothic* class, admired it because they understood it, while they would have been dead to appeals of a more classic calibre. The language, then, as well as the style of the 'Register,' being especially suited to the capacity and taste of the lower orders, the work had a powerful effect in directing what must be styled 'the public mind,' on occasions of popular excitement; and so paramount became the author's influence, that he was at length, after being again and again mulcted for libels, and escaping as often to America, elected member, in the first 'reformed' parliament, for Oldham, 1832. He of course espoused the 'cause of the people,' on all occasions; and, although not endowed with the graces of an orator, he had a flow of words, a force of argument, and a coolness of demeanour, which astonished the house, even when he failed to carry his point. 'Shrewd, intemperate, presumptuous, careless of the truth of his representations, and indifferent to their consequences, provided they made an impression, he was,' says Mr. Robert Hall, 'well qualified by his faults, no less than by his talents, for the office he assumed,—to scatter delusion, and excite insurrection.' As a practical farmer he was celebrated, though rather too fond, it is said, of theory. He died aged 70, 1835.

GEORGES CUVIER, born in Switzerland, was son of an officer in the French pay, and very early evinced a taste for natural history. The French revolution forced him to become a private tutor in the family of count d'Henicy, with whom he removed to Caen; and here the abbé Tessier discovered his great genius, and, when the capital was more quiet, induced some men of science there to examine his papers. The consequence was Cuvier's appointment, 1795, at the age of twenty-six, to the newly-founded chair of comparative anatomy. His first thoughts, on finding himself

placed in a permanent situation, were for his distressed relatives. He invited his father and brother to live with him, and after seeing them comfortably settled, applied himself to his favourite studies with a zeal that nothing could repress. He was everywhere heard with delight and conviction; for he had adopted extensive views, and he arrived at sagacious conclusions, which guided his investigations into physical nature, and shook to their base the systems of former naturalists. He especially impressed on his pupils the importance of entomological study. A young medical student came to him upon a certain occasion, full of a discovery he supposed himself to have made, in dissecting a human body. Cuvier immediately asked him if he was an entomologist? to which he replied in the negative. 'Go, then, and anatomize an insect,' said Cuvier, 'and then reconsider the discovery you have made.' The young man did so, and returned to Cuvier to confess his error. 'Now,' said Cuvier, 'you see the value of my touchstone.' As superintendent of the Jardin des Plantes, he declined accompanying Buonaparte to Egypt; and circumstances by degrees contributed to the success of his labours. The French armies, wherever they marched, sent home whatever might increase the collections of Paris; and Cuvier, being allowed to arrange the numerous contributions thus received, did so according to the system which his eloquent lectures explained. By labours which knew little intermission, and with the help of these daily increasing stores, he was enabled to lay the foundation of the science of comparative anatomy, and to introduce a reform throughout the whole series of the animal kingdom. From 1800, till his decease in 1832 (aged 63), his life was spent, as professor at the college de France, in the advancement of his favourite science, and in the publication of his splendid works in its illustration; and he was alike respected, patronized, and honoured,

in succession, by Napoleon, Louis XVIII., Charles X., and Louis Philippe, the latter of whom raised him to the peerage. Baron Cuvier was a highly benevolent man in his private character; in manner he was noble and dignified; and to all persons kind and conciliatory. His application was prodigious. After his multifarious occupations out of his house, if he had only a quarter of an hour to spare before dinner, on his return, he availed himself of it to resume some composition, interrupted since the night before. Cuvier's 'Animal Kingdom' and 'Fossil Remains' have necessarily superseded all former systems of natural history: and the great naturalist's whole career is a fine instance of the value of perseverance. Well has Dr. Johnson observed, 'that all the performances of the human mind at which we look with praise or wonder, are examples of the resistless force of perseverance.' Were a man to compare the effect of a single stroke of the pickaxe, or of one impression of the spade, with the general design and last result, he would be overwhelmed by the sense of their disproportion; yet these petty operations, incessantly continued, surmount in time the most appalling difficulties,—and mountains are levelled, and oceans bounded or united, by the slender force of the human will.

T. R. MALTHUS, an English divine, and professor of history and political economy at Haileybury college. He is only known for the singular doctrines promulgated in his 'Essay on the Principles of Population'; especially to the effect that the increase of human beings is a physical evil, which ought to be checked by legislative measures. The inference to be drawn from Mr. Malthus's principles is that, inasmuch as the limit which checks the progress of population, opposes at the same time an insurmountable obstacle to the employment of more, at any particular time, than a given amount of capital, it is as vain and fruitless

to endeavour to force the one, by multiplying commodities for which there is no demand, as it is to strive to force the other by encouraging to marriage, when the market is already overstocked with labour; that each has an impetuous tendency to overpass that boundary, which, from time to time, is marked out for them by a power more slow-paced than themselves; and that if we would mitigate or correct the evils incident to this incessant struggle, we must not waste our strength in perpetual and hopeless efforts to extend that boundary,—we must not rely on our attempts to bring up food and employment to the level of population and of capital. There is before us a much more excellent way. The true course of procedure is rather to resort to all practicable and legitimate measures for the confinement of population and capital within the limits of food and employment. It is only by engendering in the youth of both sexes habits of prudence, of foresight, and self-denial, implanting in them the desire of bettering their condition, and teaching them to exercise a controlling influence over their conduct and passions, that we can hope for any remedy or alleviation of the evils incident to excessive numbers.

We think Mr. Malthus's computations, ingenious as they are, might have been spared; since the evils he dreads can never be averted by state policy, and will most assuredly be dissipated when their pressure forces open—which it of necessity will—the great natural valve of emigration. The Almighty Creator has given to man the whole earth for an habitation; and if man will nevertheless persist in occupying one spot alone, and in over-peopling it, it is his own fault if the evils of want of employ, scanty production, and famine ensue. Emigration is the natural process by which an overplus population is relieved; all history shows that such has been the instinctive mode of remedying the evil adopted

by every nation. With his sword in his hand, the Goth, the Scythian, the Northman, the Tartar, issued forth from the densely-crowded hive of his native land, to seek a fortune in the thinly-peopled countries of the south ; and the descendants of those barbaric emigrants are now the polished citizens of the most enlightened European states. Emigration is the enlargement of God's vineyard for the maintenance of its multiplied vine-dressers ; and a country so small and so wholly circumscribed by the sea as Great Britain is, should support the principle in every way. It is simply the carrying out into *politics* that system in *economics*, which induces every parent to give his son such an education as may enable him to go from his family, (in many cases into foreign lands,) and shift for himself. So the English parochial authorities should be aided in making provision for the outfits of the superabundant poor ; who would then, instead of degenerating into worse than brutes, and becoming a burthen to the productive consumers of their country, originate new and important families, in other more genial portions of the globe, where their industry would speedily be rewarded by the acquisition of the comforts and conveniencies of life. Mr. Malthus was termed 'the Ogre, and Jack the giant-killer of the nineteenth century ;' because he considered (confining his views to England, and regarding it as over populated to a degree that would ere long produce, if none of its overplus would quit it, the most grievous results) the casualties of life, such as shipwrecks, wars, and even plagues, must come to be regarded as happy visitations. But so far as population goes, England is any thing but overstocked. It has been fairly proved that every acre of land, by spade cultivation, will support *two* persons comfortably. Now, taking Europe and America at large, there is not more than one person to every 213 acres : 213 acres therefore in England would

well support 426 persons instead of one, so that Europe and America must have the population multiplied 426 times, before there could be the least deficiency of comfortable subsistence. We are aware we are here supposing the land to be everywhere available, and in common. But that population yet really presses upon subsistence anywhere is manifestly untrue ; and if we only refer to Ireland (although that is a peculiar case,) a single acre will support *twelve* persons instead of two. An acre of potatoes will, allowing each seven pounds per diem, subsist that number ; and the quantity of land necessary to the support of one horse ($4\frac{1}{2}$ acres,) would in this way maintain fifty-four Irishmen. It is not, in conclusion, to be inferred that Mr. Malthus had not the most benevolent intention in promulgating his theory ; and it is far to say, that his views met with their full share of popular abuse, chiefly through the ill development of that theory. He appeared to inculcate that, as evil was inevitable, evil might be done with a view to do good, independently of the 'vexata quæstio' which he mooted ; and the terms that he used, in common with other writers on population, were often ambiguous, and likely to be misunderstood. Whatever the natural law of increase, all history tells us that, either by the fault of rulers, or their ignorance, or by the fault and ignorance of their subjects, population, in every condition of density, has pressed against the means of subsistence ; and that while true civilization develops all men's resources, and tends to establish a healthy balance between population and production, corrupted civilization, on the contrary, by crippling industry, and monopolizing wealth, diminishes individual power, and imposes the preventive checks of vice and starvation. Mr. Malthus died 1834.

JOSEPH LITTLEDALE (1767—1842), son of a gentleman of fortune, was born at Eton-house, Lancashire, and

completed his education at St. John's college, Cambridge, of which he became ultimately a fellow. He was senior wrangler, 1787, and first Smith's prizeman. Adopting the law as a profession, he was called to the bar, 1798, a delay occasioned by his acting many years as a special pleader; and in 1824 he was made a judge, and knighted. As a sound and well-read lawyer, he enjoyed the entire respect of the profession; as an upright, laborious, and impartial judge, he possessed the confidence of the public; and as an amiable and kind-hearted man, he was beloved by all who had the happiness of his personal acquaintance. In 1841 he retired from the bench on account of ill health; and he died in the next year, very extensively lamented, aged 75.

RICHARD HURRELL FROUDE, son of archdeacon Froude, was educated at Eton and Oxford; and after becoming a fellow of Oriel college, entered into holy orders, 1828. He travelled in the south of Europe, on account of delicate health, 1832; but consumption at length carried him to the grave, aged 33, 1836. The life of Mr. Froude is in no way prominent, but as connected with an anxious attempt that has for several years been making by some members of the university of Oxford, to place the church of England on a more solid foundation than she is considered at present to possess. Fondly hoping that he saw ways by which *the unity* of the Christian church might be restored, Mr. Froude, when on the continent, studiously regarded the opinions and practice of the Roman catholics; but he came home disappointed, and convinced 'that they were wretched Tridentines everywhere.' His disappointment was natural enough; and we think had he been an older and more experienced person, he would not have gone on so fruitless an errand. Without reference to the old church, surely something of the vigour and solemnity of the ancient discipline of the church of England may be re-

vived. That is surely a comparatively easy task to any attempt to subdue the uncharitableness of the Romanists. Let the sin of the schism of the Reformation rest upon the heads of the reformers. Time and circumstances have hallowed the change to their descendants, who may be supposed, in their generation, to have outlived the attainer which their ancestors braved; and nothing now but the hand of God can restore the bond of unity which that braving and hardy daring broke. Mr. Froude's journal and letters have been published under the title of 'Remains' by the rev. Dr. Pusey, in support of church self-reformation.—(*See Tracts for the Times.*)

THOMAS WELD (1773—1837), son of Thomas Weld, esq., of Lulworth Castle, Dorset, was born in London, and educated wholly by private tutors. His mother was of the noble house of Stanley, a woman of great mind, accomplishments, and beauty. The family being catholics, and possessing great wealth, as well as a munificent temper, a host of French exiles of all grades resorted to the several mansions of young Weld's father on the outbreak of the revolution, 1789, imploring his influence to procure them an asylum; and numerous as were the applicants, all were in some way aided. At length the whole society of Jesuits, against whom the virulent anti-religious spirit of the French republicans was in a special manner directed, appeared as suppliants to the Welds; and on that occasion the youthful subject of this brief memoir strongly pressed his father to give them temporary shelter in their untenanted mansion of Stonyhurst, in Lancashire. The wish was no sooner expressed than assented to by Mr. Weld; and to this day that estate is the chief residence of the disciples of Loyola. The monks of La Trappe may in the same way regard Mr. Weld as the preserver of their order. They found a secure refuge on the demesne at Lulworth; and when

their first protector died, they continued to receive support from his son. So complete and unreserved was the latter's charitable conduct towards them, that, on their return to France, he repurchased from them all the buildings they had erected entirely for their own convenience, although to himself of no value, that he might have a plea to furnish some of the poorer brothers with a purse. This selection of a class of objects especially connected with his own religious opinions, for the exercise of his bounty, by no means rendered him deaf to the daily claims upon Christian benevolence. Never was he found backward in relieving distress under any form; his name being upon every subscription-list for the alleviation of human suffering. In 1796 he married a young lady of the noble house of Clifford; and from that period until deprived by death of his amiable consort, 1815, he lived the tranquil life of a country gentleman, constantly entertaining with dignified hospitality at Lulworth, and elsewhere, and delighting with his cheerful and sensible conversation, a large circle of attached friends. His union had been blessed with an only child, a daughter; and by her marriage in 1818 with lord Clifford, Mr. Weld was at liberty to follow the impulse of his charitable zeal in favour of religion and the poor. The better to enlarge his sphere of usefulness, he resolved on reading for holy orders, was in 1821 ordained by the archbishop of Paris, and in 1822 entered upon the labours of his new life at the catholic chapel in Chelsea. Like their brethren of the church of England, the catholic clergy in and about London must be the servants of all; ever to be found watching, whether called in the second or the third watch of the night, they must go and minister to the wants of the meanest of Christ's brethren. And the ministrations by day is yet more trying and laborious than that of our own clergy. Regular public worship daily occupies many hours; many

hours again have to be passed in the confessional; and private prayer, the catechising of children, and the visitation of the sick, leave no moment of leisure to the labourer in the vineyard—proofs of which over-working may be drawn from the very numerous early deaths of London catholic divines. Mr. Weld, however, was not to be deterred by considerations like these. To relieve himself from all impediment to full exertion, he began by resigning the bulk of his large fortune, with the estates, to his second brother; reserving to himself merely an annuity sufficient to enable him, after providing for his few personal wants, to indulge in his own luxury of relieving the distressed. At forty-eight, however unused to put aside ease and repose, he cheerfully entered upon the duties of his calling. Whoever was in want, sought and received relief from his bounty; establishments of his church, devoted to religion and charity, were munificently supplied from his purse; and so influential did he soon become, that he was solicited to act as coadjutor to the catholic bishop of Upper Canada, to settle the affairs of his church in America, 1826. He had just acceded to this proposal, when the declining health of lady Clifford required her trial of a milder climate; his own health being at the same juncture in no very robust state. He resolved, therefore, on visiting Italy before crossing the Atlantic, repaired with lord and lady Clifford to Rome, and was in a short time honoured by the especial attention of pope Pius VIII., who in 1830, unsolicited, raised him to the rank of cardinal. He of course, upon this, relinquished the voyage to America; and after greatly raising the English name in Rome, by his unaffected piety and unvarying course of munificence, died of paralysis, brought on by his unceasing labour, at his palazzo in the capitol, aged 64, 1837.

DAVID WILKIE (1785—1841), son of a minister of the Scottish kirk,

was born at Cultra, near Cupar, in Fife, and at fifteen was placed with an artist to study painting as a profession. In 1804 he came to London; and being unfriended and unknown, obtained a sale for his productions by placing them in a framemaker's window at Charing-cross. He first attracted general notice, 1806, by his 'Village Politicians,' painted for lord Mansfield for thirty guineas, and by his 'Blind Fiddler,' executed for sir George Beaumont for fifty guineas; in 1807 his 'Rent Day' obtained 300 guineas from lord Mulgrave; and he went on increasing in fame until 1812, when he painted his 'Blindman's Buff' for the regent. His 'Distraining for Rent' (600 guineas) and 'Chelsea Pensioners reading the Gazette of the Battle of Waterloo' (the latter for the duke of Wellington at 1200 guineas), were among his next best works. He was now, of course, a royal academician; but his health began to decline, and to recruit it he visited the continent, 1825. In 1830 he succeeded sir Thomas Lawrence as chief painter to the king, and was knighted; the same honourable post he held under William IV. and queen Victoria; and his works, from the time of receiving that appointment until his decease, consisted of portraits, and numerous other characteristic pieces, among which latter was certainly his best historical production, viz., 'The Preaching of John Knox,' bought by sir Robert Peel for 1500*l*. In 1841 sir David visited Syria, with the intention of painting a series of pictures of that ever-interesting country; and he was on board the *Oriental*, on his return home, when a fever seized him, of which he died in the bay of Gibraltar, aged 56, May 31, 1841. As the fever was among the crew, his body was obliged to be consigned to the deep. As a painter, sir David rests for his fame on the ingenuity with which he may be said to have dramatized those broad points of character he delighted to record. The high degree of humour he

evinced, was always chastened by a taste which never suffered it to degenerate into caricature; and he merits the high praise of having had a very perfect knowledge of the principles of his art. His colouring is unhappily found unenduring.

ALEXANDER KNOX was born at Londonderry, of a respectable methodist family; a circumstance which brought him early into connexion with John Wesley. His constitution was of the feeblest kind. He was an invalid from his cradle; and so continued to the end of his life—but more especially for upwards of thirty years of it. Shortly after the rebellion of 1798, he formed a friendship with lord Castlereagh, and became his private secretary; a post which he maintained through those disastrous and heavy times, up to the period of the Union. His natural habits being as retired and contemplative as his health was weak, Mr. Knox, on resigning his secretaryship, avoided all future engagements of a political kind, and retired to live upon his small patrimonial estate. From this period his life was that of a religious philosopher, a sort of Christian Socrates. He was incessantly surrounded by a circle of disciples, and engaged in a round of theological correspondence; and in few words it may be stated, that his constant labour was, either to rank with Wesley as a 'spiritualizer of church notions,' and the founder of a sect *in* the church, or to amalgamate *with* the church such as professed the primitive methodist tenets. At Bellevue, the residence of Mr. Latouche, he was at last domiciled for the greater part of every year; and there he was frequently consulted by many of the most eminent for worth and intellect in Ireland, bishop Jebb being his most fervent admirer, not to say disciple. He died, 1831. The correspondence between Mr. Knox and bishop Jebb has been published, as well as the 'Remains of Alexander Knox, esq.,' the latter being a talented record of the au-

thor's notions on very momentous points of theology, though involving scarcely orthodox views on the subjects of the efficacy of the Eucharist and justification by faith. 'Dieu t'a fait pour l'aimer, et non pour le comprendre,' is, though the axiom of a deist, worthy of all remembrance by the eager analyzers of God's dealings with his creatures; and the confessedly pious Mr. Knox, therefore, must lie under the imputation of having presumptuously, and with too microscopic an eye, attempted to scrutinize the *method* of man's salvation. 'How it is (said the learned and sound bishop Butler) that the death of Christ has effected our redemption, there are not wanting persons who have attempted to explain—but I do not find that the Bible has explained it; and if our profoundest and mightiest thinkers would only adopt the caution and the simplicity of that great prelate, copy his abstinence from all invasion of that inner sanctuary of truth, which may not be trodden by the foot of man, or perhaps of angels, and carry with them the spirit of his sayings into all their meditations and researches, much damage of Christian charity and peace might be happily prevented.

ROWLAND HILL (1745—1833), sixth son of sir Rowland Hill, bart., of Hawkestone, Salop, was born at his father's seat. As a child, he was full of pranks and drolleries; and it was not until he had entered at Eton, that he received the first beams of spiritual light, and was 'converted' by an elder brother. After undergoing that process, he was sent to St. John's college, Cambridge, where, according to his biographer and kinsman, Mr. Edwin Sidney, 'he was such a marked and hated person, that nobody belonging to the college ever gave him a cordial smile, except the old shoe-black at the gate, who had the love of Christ in his heart.' 'Piety and zeal,' however, soon introduced him to the acquaintance of Mr. Berridge; under whose ministry

at Everton he sat every Sunday, taking care to return in time for college chapel. Fired by the precepts of this 'excellent but eccentric old clergyman,' the energetic Rowland, though yet an under-graduate, commenced preaching in Cambridge and its vicinity; and having met with some opposition, he took an opinion from the celebrated Whitefield, who strongly urged him 'not to give way, nor look back; but, after his own example at Oxford, to proceed in his happy career, till he should obtain the distinction of being hissed and hooted in the streets, and reproached, and counted as dung and offscouring.' He continued accordingly to preach, much to the benefit of his hearers—at Chesterton, where 'no other harm was done than the windows broke;' at the Castle, where there was 'a little mobbing;' at Grandchester, where 'many were drunk,' and the orator himself 'was confused;' 'in a barn, for the first time with much comfort, although some gowmsmen gnashed with their teeth.' These infringements of academical discipline met with strenuous condemnation from his father, and were threatened by the university with a refusal of testimonials, and even of a degree. Nevertheless, under the auspices of Whitefield, Rowland maintained his perseverance unshrinkingly, proceeded B.A. 1769, and then prepared, though not without grief, to quit 'his little flock at Cambridge.' On his application for orders, six bishops refused their consent, on the ground of his 'disinclination to promise in future to confine himself to the rules of the church;' and, during the interval in which his profession continued thus undecided, he was chiefly occupied in itinerant preaching, and supported himself as well as he was able on the very scanty allowance to which he was restricted by his father's displeasure. Nor was poverty the only cross to which he had to submit. At Stowey he was encountered by 'pans, shovels, horns, bells, dirt, and eggs.'

At Putsham, 'some of the congregation stood serious, some scoffed at a distance, and others threw stones.' At Melscomb he found people 'unaffected and inattentive, so that it was a miserable, dry, humbling time.' At Bridgewater he preached to 'a decreasing congregation.' At Wotton-under-edge he was saved from a stone by a Gloucestershire disciple, who arrested the arm preparing to throw it, at the same time flatly declaring, 'If thee does touch him, I'll knock thee's head off!' At Cheltenham he found it 'miserable work to preach to the rich.' At Marlborough he met a very 'rude and rebellious congregation', who laughed at and pelted him. In the summer of 1772, he undertook a revival of Whitefield's ministry in London. That remarkable man was then dead; but Rowland addressed his followers in the Moorfields Tabernacle, and in the Tottenham-court-road chapel. In 1773 he married Miss Tudway, after 'a Christian courtship,' and in the same year prevailed on Dr. Wills, the *aged* bishop of Bath and Wells, to ordain him deacon. The archbishop of York, however, was on the alert; and when Rowland offered himself as a candidate for priest's orders, he was informed that his perpetual irregularity forbade his admission to any higher grade than that which he had already obtained. To follow him in all his rambles is manifestly out of our power. In spite of bilious attacks, and horseponds, addled eggs and vituperations, he persisted in his 'field campaigns'—encouraged by the recollection of other faithful ministers, who had endured other similar martyrdoms. While passing in his phaeton from some place where he had been preaching, accompanied by Mrs. Hill, the pair were attacked in the dark, by either two or three men, who violently demanded their money. They had a few minutes previously made a successful attack upon a Mr. Whitefoot, his assistant, who preceded them in a gig. When they came to Mr. Hill (and

he used to laugh heartily as he told the story), he set up such a tremendous unearthly shout, that one of them cried out, 'We have stopped the devil by mistake, and had better be off;'—on which they ran away, and left him and his lady in peaceful possession of the road. He used to say, 'I stood up in the carriage, and made all the outrageous noises I could think of; which frightened the fellows out of their wits, and away they scampered.' The 'usefulness' of Mr. Hill's preaching was somewhat diminished during the year 1775, by an ugly habit he had acquired of mixing politics with divinity; and so violent was the language wherein he denounced the American war from the pulpit, 'that hints were given him of its being noticed.' He engaged also in a not very gentle controversy with the Wesleyans; and it was now that he felt within him 'a divinity breeding wings,' wherewith he hoped to spurn that common track which afforded no rest to the sole of his foot. Into what wild and pathless tracks his daring pinion, when once full fledged, might have carried him, through what varieties of untried doctrine he might have winged his way, it surpasses our capacity to divine; but that thing of earth called 'pecuniary consideration,' suddenly arrested his attention. After all, the great event in his life was his foundation of Surrey chapel, Blackfriars, London, 1782; his design being to erect a pulpit open to pious ministers of all denominations, and of every country, or, as the 'British critics' interpret the words, 'to be the conductor of a theological omnibus.'

Having put his chapel into the hands of trustees, Mr. Hill received from them 300*l.* a year, out of which he boarded the persons who occupied the pulpit during his summer absences; and he was especially fond of inducing any eminent Welsh minister, who happened to be in town, and did not see the impropriety of preaching in a dissenting place of worship, to officiate in his pulpit in

his native tongue. It was while on what he termed 'a gospel tour' in Scotland, that he gave his two carriage-horses the respective names of Order and Decorum; and on being asked the cause by his biographer, Mr. Edwin Sidney, his son-in-law, he replied, 'They said in the north, Mr. Hill rides upon the backs of order and decorum; so I called one of my horses order and the other decorum, that they might tell the truth in one way, if they did not in another.' These horses, and especially a third, a cream-coloured saddle-horse, named Bob, began to excite scandal among his followers; and some notion of the licence permitted in Surrey chapel may be gathered from the subjoined anecdote. 'Once,' says Mr. Sidney, 'an impudent fellow placed a piece of paper on the desk, just before Mr. Hill was going to read prayers. He took it, and began—'The prayers of this congregation are desired for—umph—for—umph—well, I suppose I must finish what I have begun,—for the reverend Rowland Hill, that he will not go riding about in his carriage on a Sunday!'—'This,' continues Mr. Sidney, 'would have disconcerted any other man; but he looked up coolly, and said—'If the writer of this piece of folly and impertinence is in the congregation, and will go into the vestry after service, and let me put a saddle on his back, I will ride him home, instead of going in my carriage.' He then went on with the service, as if nothing had happened. Mr. Sidney observes, in a note, 'I once told him this story, and asked him if it was true: 'Ay, that it is,' he said, 'true enough—you know I could not call him a *donkey* in plain terms from the reading-desk.' Again; one day, when a number of persons took shelter in the chapel during a shower of rain, he interlarded his sermon with the following *jeu-d'esprit*: 'Many people are greatly to be blamed for making their religion a *cloak*; but I do not think those are much better, who make it

an *umbrella*.' His proneness to repartee was evinced both in and out of the pulpit. He was on one occasion asked by the chaplain of the Magdalen charity, Mr. Prince, what had become of a young person who had left its asylum to be restored (by Mr. Hill) to her friends. 'You know, sir,' replied he, 'that you had the hardest work, and did it well, that of converting the *sinner* into the *saint*; and I have the satisfaction of telling you that I have attempted and effected the easier labour, that of turning the saint into an *angel*—for you must know that I had her well married last week to a man of that name.'

Mr. Hill possessed a pleasing person, and always dressed as a divine of the established church. A gentleman once entered a dissenting chapel in the country, and on returning home, said, I have seen a man with such a commanding air, as I never witnessed before—who can he be? It was Rowland Hill; and Mr. Sidney remarks very justly that, as Johnson said of Burke, had a man chanced to take shelter with him during a shower, he would have gone home and said, 'I have seen a most extraordinary man.' In his theological opinions, he was a calvinist; but what is called hyper-calvinism he could not endure. He was for drawing together Christians of every denomination, and was willing to join in any universal communion with them; being, in this respect, joint-founder with Alexander Knox of the modern sect of Naamans—half-churchmen, half-dissenters. Mr. Hill abominated all exclusiveness in religion; and when on one occasion he had preached in a chapel, where none but baptized adults were admitted to the sacrament, and wished to communicate with them, but was told respectfully, 'You cannot sit down at our table,' he replied, 'Oh, I thought it was the *Lord's* table!' and went his way, exclaiming against the uncharitableness of the Baptists.

We question if the latitudinarian scheme of Mr. Hill would not, if fully carried into play, produce yet

greater evils than the boundary one of the respective dissenting communities; and at all events, since the throwing off, at the Reformation, of the restraints imposed by the Church, has produced the numerous schisms that exist, to the dishonour of Christianity, we cannot see why the throwing down of the fences of schismatic congregations themselves, save for a return to the Church, should not lead, first to as many forms of faith as there are individual men, and ultimately to the annihilation of all religious belief whatever.

The last days of the eccentric Mr. Hill (who, though it is impossible to assign his opinions to any one sect, thought himself a methodist—at least a sort of Wesleyan—but more of a 'Rowland Hillite')—as he jocosely said on one occasion—were passed in the curious task of remodelling chapel psalmody, by adapting religious words to the common secular airs of the day, 'in order that people might be reminded of serious things even by a street organ.' In this way, 'Rule Britannia,' 'God save the King,' and even such tunes as 'Robin Adair,' were furnished with 'holy words.' Mr. Hill also wrote a jingling *vaticum*, to be sung by his manservant when himself should be dying—and which was accordingly sung; but its familiar and therefore profane allusion to the Saviour, prevents our giving it here, brief as it is. So easily does fanaticism, almost without intention, run into blasphemy! Mr. Hill died, aged 88, 1833.

ADAM CLARKE, the eminent methodist divine, was son of an Irish schoolmaster; and, according to his own account, the drudgery he endured in his progress through Lilly's grammar, was most appalling. To the legendary lore, however, of 'Tom Thumb' and 'Jack the Giant Killer,' he ardently devoted his leisure moments; and to them he ascribed his acquisition of a literary taste, and of a firm belief in spiritual agency! The story of 'Troy' was equally profitable; for it impelled him to invoke

the spirit of Hector, and helped to convert him from a timid child, into a courageous lad. Nay the study of magic had its charms and uses for Adam Clarke. He plunged into the murky depths of Cornelius Agrippa's occult philosophy; and became the terror of midnight depredators, who were constrained, by apprehension of his spells, to leave the premises of his father unrifled. At length he abandoned this pursuit, and revelled, without restraint, in the scenery of the 'Arabian Nights;' a book to which he confidently traces his fondness for oriental history and literature. Though no man in his senses would think of gravely recommending a similar course of discipline to children, yet 'Tom Thumb,' 'Hector of Troy,' 'Cornelius Agrippa,' and the 'Arabian Nights,' all helped, somehow or other, to lift Adam Clarke out of the smoke and stir of the quotidian world. They filled his soul with unearthly aspirations, which, as he advanced in years, found their appropriate direction. At length, in a clod of earth he found half-a-guinea; and after in vain trying to discover the owner, he bought therewith a Hebrew bible. He now laboured hard to gain an acquaintance with the primitive language of the earth; and more by means of himself than by the aid of a master, he accomplished his design. At the age of seventeen, he joined the methodists, though his father was of the church of England; affirming that he had had a call to that effect, while working in a field. He was next seized with what he terms a *morbid regard* for truth; he *believed* that he had done this, and he *thought* that he had said that, but he was never *sure*. His memory and his senses he treated as altogether unworthy of credit; and he declares he lost the former for ever, although, in a given time after that period, he had 'preached 5000 sermons, without knowing beforehand a single sentence which he should utter.' In 1788 he was received as a preacher among the me-

thodists; and in that capacity was, for nearly half a century, followed more than any other dissenter of the regular class, it being his boast, that let him be fairly placed with any of the 'powerful' preachers in or out of the church, 'he could *out-congregation* them all.' After preaching his first missionary sermon, he states that he was congratulated in the vestry by a crowd of his flock; and observing a venerable old lady among the number, he drew her a little aside, and begged she would tell him frankly what *particular* portion of his sermon had gratified her. 'My dear sir,' replied she, 'it was all good alike; but that beautiful word, *Mesopotamia*—when you mentioned that word, I thought I should have fainted upon the spot!'

In the latter part of his life Dr. Clarke caused, by his peculiar creed, much dispute amongst the Wesleyans, of whose society he professed himself a member. He was in fact an ultra-Arminian, and abhorred Calvinism to such a degree, that he even ventured to question the foreknowledge of the Deity: the doctrines of Christian perfectibility, and the internal witness of the Spirit, were maintained by him with passionate eagerness. It was his strange interpretation of the second chapter of Genesis (in his very laborious work, 'The Commentary on the Bible,' wherein he transmutes the serpent into an ape, and denies the eternal filiation of the second person in the Trinity), that occasioned the dispute in question. The old Wesleyans condemned the doctrine as heretical, and Adam Clarke pronounced the usually-received opinion to be blasphemous; whereon an angry contest blazed up, which will probably terminate in a division of the Wesleyans into two distinct sects. Dr. Clarke died of malignant cholera, aged 70, 1832.

ROBERT HALL (1768—1831), a distinguished Baptist-minister, was born at Arnsby, Leicestershire, and settled at Cambridge as a preacher,

1791. Whilst resident in the latter place, he became known to and admired by some of the most distinguished scholars of the age. Dr. Parr said of him, 'Mr. Hall has, like bishop Taylor, the eloquence of an orator, the fancy of a poet, the acuteness of a schoolman, the profoundness of a philosopher, and the piety of a saint;' while the critical Dugald Stewart, upon reading his writings, asserted that 'he combined the beauties of Johnson, Addison, and Burke, without their imperfections; and that any one wishing to see the English language in its perfection, must read his works.' After declining bishop Barrington's offer of ordination, Mr. Hall, in 1804, removed to Leicester, and thence, in 1826, to Bristol, where he died, still pastor of a Baptist congregation, aged 68, 1831. The name of Hall stands prominent as one of the first pulpit-orators of his day, out of the church. His oratory was soft, mellifluous, rich, deep, and fluent: to this was added an earnestness and fervency, which impressed his audience with the sincerity of his belief. From bad health, and a peculiarly delicate nervous temperament, he hardly ever studied any of the orations he delivered, or even thought of them, until he had entered the pulpit. His addresses were, in consequence, unequal. There was at times a heaviness, which was apt to make strangers wonder at the reputation for eloquence to which he had attained; but when his health was firm, his spirits good, and his theme congenial, no man ever rose to happier and higher flights in such purely extemporaneous exhibitions. But it must not be disguised that Mr. Hall was the avowed enemy of the establishment; and, as the great organ of dissent, we have a right to regard his published opinions as authority for the conclusion, that the one great principle wherein all dissenters will be found united, however they may differ amongst themselves in other points, is the annihilation of the church of England. The Bap-

tists may be in the van : but there is a whole army of all sects behind them, ready to begin the work of destruction, when the appointed hour of attack shall arrive. Hear Mr. Hall's own words : 'From the time of Elizabeth, under whom dissenters began to make their appearance, their views of religious liberty have gradually extended ; commencing at first with a disapprobation of certain rites and ceremonies, the remains of papal superstition. Their total separation from the church did not take place for more than a century after ; till, despairing of seeing it erected on a comprehensive plan, and being moreover persecuted for their difference of sentiment, they were compelled at last to withdraw. Having been thus directed by a train of events into *the right path*, they pushed their principles to their *legitimate consequences*, and began to discern the impropriety of *all religious establishments whatever*—a sentiment in which they are now nearly all united.' 'Down with the old hag!' (*i. e.* the church of England), were the words, says Mr. Gresley, used by the chairman of a large recent meeting of dissenters in the metropolis ; and Mr. Sibree, a magnus Apollo of sectarianism, thus writes. 'We hesitate not to declare that we wish to pull down the establishment. We long and sigh for its overthrow, and shall do all in our power to hasten such a consummation. We contend for nothing more : we will be satisfied with nothing less.' So say all such advocates of dissent as are unprophectic enough not to foresee the certain prostration of *all* religion in England, in the downfall of her established church.

EDWARD IRVING (1792—1834), born at Annan, in Scotland, of respectable but not wealthy parents, became, after a slight and desultory education, assistant in a school at Haddington, whence he removed to superintend a subscription one at Kirkcaldy, in Fife, 1816. There he continued until 1819, when, anxious

to take orders, he returned to Edinburgh, and after much reading of the 'judicious' Hooker, than whom he could not have chosen a better director, was eventually, upon Dr. Chalmers selecting him as his associate in the ministry of Glasgow, ordained by the presbytery of Annan, 1820. At Glasgow he remained till 1822, when he was promoted to conduct the national Scottish kirk in London, at that time assembling in Hatton-garden. Nothing is more curious than the rapidity with which Mr. Irving's fame as an orator now spread. In a few weeks he attracted very general notice ; insomuch that persons of all persuasions, noble and simple, crowded to hear him ; and no pulpit eloquence was considered as approaching in excellence that of the Scottish preacher, who seemed to blend the acute logic of the schools with the terrific vigour of the old covenanters. Mr. Canning and other members of the senate, Kean and other histrionic professors, were his frequent and admiring hearers ; high-born beauty even hung upon his words ; while his tall figure, unusual action, and rapid delivery, were the theme of wondering panegyric. At length a more commodious chapel was constructed for him at the north-west end of the metropolis. But while thus followed in great measure for his declamatory style, he handled with no small skill many disputed doctrinal points, and at length gave offence to the elders of his church by the method in which he discoursed on the Incarnation from the words in the Athanasian creed, 'Man of the substance of his mother.' He defended himself before the Consistory of London with acknowledged ability, but was nevertheless condemned by his presbyterian accusers, and excommunicated. This singular severity weighed considerably upon his spirits, and it is supposed was the main cause of that subsequent carelessness respecting public opinion, which has given rise to the belief that his mind became

affected. But though appearing to favour a species of mystical devotion, and, on the presumption that the miraculous gift of tongues was still in the church catholic, he permitted persons to declaim in his chapel, during divine service, after the manner of the ancient rhapsodists, not a syllable of what they so uttered being intelligible to the congregation, he was in his private capacity a most amiable man, and an affectionate and zealous pastor; and notwithstanding the number and force of his opponents, he was never heard to speak of them an unkind word. Worn out with the conflict in which he unwarily found himself engaged, he wasted away, and died, aged only 42, 1834. It is perhaps not unfair to say that much of his church's hostility towards Mr. Irving arose from the fact of his attachment to John Knox's great bugbear, episcopacy; and his scriptural belief, not in a corporal, but a spiritual presence in the Eucharist, may have augmented and brought it to a crisis.

JEREMY BENTHAM (1748—1832), a celebrated writer on jurisprudence and morals, was son of a solicitor, and born in Aldgate parish, London. After an education at Westminster, and Queen's college, Oxford, he was called to the bar 1772; but quitted the profession of the law in disgust, and travelled over parts of Turkey and Russia. Some years after his return to England, he proposed to the ministry an improved system of prison discipline; but although Mr. Pitt seemed desirous of carrying out his views, the scheme ultimately fell to the ground. The reform of the criminal code then became Mr. Bentham's ardent object; and after writing with much sense on that manifestly difficult subject, he turned his attention to ethics, and at length promulgated a new system of morals, commonly known as Utilitarianism, which for its selfishness, heartlessness, and want of all religious ground, has already met the oblivion it deserved. (See *Deontology*). Mr.

Bentham's great merit was as a philosophical jurist, and writer on legislation. The doctrine of utility as the foundation of virtue, is as old as the earliest Greek philosophers, and has divided the world in every age since their time; but the definitions of natural law, natural justice, and the like, which pervade all the writers on legislation and law from Ulpian down to Montesquieu and Blackstone, show how little progress had been made, previously to Mr. Bentham, in the application of this great principle to the field of law. For his services in this department, therefore, he deserves, and probably will receive, the gratitude of posterity. Mr. Bentham entered himself, though late, a bachelor of Lincoln's-inn, 1817; and he died, aged 84, at his house in Westminster, wherein he had resided nearly half a century, 1832, leaving, by his last will, his body to his friend Dr. Southwood Smith, for dissection; thus illustrating by his last act his favourite maxim—'to be useful in all things.' When dying, it was proposed to him to have more than one person in the room to witness his departure, but he objected, observing that it was his maxim to give pain, even in dying, to as few as possible; thus acting in conformity with that 'greatest happiness, principle,' which is the basis of his Deontology. As a general reasoner, Bentham's defects are very evident. Like all radical reformers, there is much to condemn in his haste, in his want of all reverence for existing usages, and in his abundant confidence in his own theories. He defines, and even so far as particular objects go, he describes, with the mathematical accuracy of Euclid; but when he comes to argue upon his definitions in a connected problem or didactic essay, he soon loses his way, and, under the peculiar sceptical tone of his mind, and the absence of an understanding intrinsically sound and right, falls into inconclusive paradoxes, and into inferences totally repugnant to truth and nature.

LADY HESTER STANHOPE (1776—1839) was the eldest child of Charles, third earl Stanhope, by Hester, daughter of the great earl of Chatham, and was consequently a niece of the illustrious William Pitt. On the decease of her uncle, 1806, she left England, and visited various parts of Europe; and young, handsome, and rich, she was everywhere received with the attention and interest due to her rank, fortune, mind, and beauty. The real cause of this expatriation has never been known; some have ascribed it to regret at the death of a young English officer, who was killed at that period in Spain; others to a mere love of adventure in a young person of an enterprising and courageous character; and some again (with perhaps greater truth), to a tinge of insanity. However this might be, she at length visited Constantinople; and after spending several years there, embarked with a numerous suite for Syria, in a British ship, which carried also the larger part of her fortune, as well as jewellery, trinkets, and presents of all sorts of very considerable value, 1811. The vessel encountered a storm in the gulf of Macri, and was wrecked, lady Hester's property was all lost, and it was as much as she could do to save her own life. Nothing, however, could shake her resolution. She returned to England, gathered the remainder of her fortune, sailed again for Syria, and landed at Latakia, the ancient Laodicea. She at first thought of fixing her abode at Broussa, at the foot of Olympus; but Broussa is a commercial city, situate on the avenues to the Ottoman capital, and reckoning not less than 60,000 inhabitants, and lady Hester preferred the independence and solitude of the desert. She therefore selected the wilderness of Mount Lebanon, whose extreme ramifications lose themselves in the sands. Ruined Palmyra—Zenobia's ancient capital—suited her fancy; and she took up her residence at Djouni in Syria, prepared for every vicissitude. 'Europe,' said she, 'is a monotonous residence; its nations are unworthy of freedom, and endless revolutions are their only prospects.' She applied herself to the study of Arabic, and strove to obtain a thorough acquaintance with the characters and manners of the Syrian people. One day, dressed in the costume of the Osmanlees, she set out for Jerusalem, Damascus, and Aleppo; and she advanced amidst a caravan laden with wealth, tents, and presents for the sheiks, surrounded by all the tribes who knelt to her, and submitted to her supremacy. It was not solely by her magnificence that lady Hester had excited the admiration of the Arabs: her courage had been proved on more than one occasion, and she had always faced peril with boldness and energy. She knew also how to flatter the Moslem prejudices. She held no intercourse with either Christians or Jews; spent whole days in the grotto of a santon who explained the Koran to her; and never appeared in public without that mien of majestic and grave inspiration, which was always to oriental nations the characteristic of prophets. With her, however, this conduct was not so much the result of design, as of a decided proneness to every species of excitement and originality. Lady Hester's first abode was a monastery; but it was soon transformed into an eastern palace, with pavilions, orange-gardens, and myrtles; over which spread the foliage of the cedar, such as it grows in the mountains of Lebanon. The traveller to whom lady Hester opened this sanctuary, would behold her clad in oriental garments. Her head was covered with a turban made of a red and white cashmere, she wore a long tunic with open loose sleeves, and large Turkish trousers, the folds of which hung over yellow morocco boots embroidered with silk, her shoulders were covered with a sort of burnous, and a yataghan hung to her waist. She had a serious, and imposing countenance; her noble and mild features had a majestic ex-

pression, which her high stature, and the dignity of her movements enhanced. The day came when all this *prestige*, so expensively kept up, suddenly vanished. Lady Hester's fortune rapidly declined; her income (constantly trenching as she did upon the principal) yearly decreased; in short, the substantial resources which had at one time sustained the magic of her extraordinary domination, were hourly forsaking her. The queen of Palmyra, therefore, fell back into the rank of mortals; and she who had signed absolute firmans, enabling the traveller to visit in security the deserted city of Tadmor,—she, whose authority the Sublime Porte had tacitly acknowledged, at length saw her people disown her omnipotency. She was left the empty title of Palmyra's queen; and again the monastery's silence ruled over the solitude of Djouni. Thus stripped of her glory of a day, lady Stanhope died in obscurity and loneliness, aged 63, 1839.

The shipwreck of lady Hester, which happened 1811, enabled her to display what is usually considered an extraordinary control of mind; and so little do we really know of ontology, that the fact can hardly be controverted, if we should suggest that the courage of the eccentric and half insane is more distinctly fearless, through apathy, than is the most heroic daring of the sane. This adventure in the Mediterranean, occurring as it did in that portion of it which 1800 years before had witnessed the shipwreck of the great apostle of the Gentiles, was regarded as resembling it in many particulars; but the following letter from Dr. Meryon to lieutenant-general Oakes, will best enable the reader '*parva componere magnis*.'—'Rhodes, Dec. 2, 1811. Sir; Finding an occasion present itself for Malta, I cannot forbear writing to your excellency, to apprise you of a misfortune that has happened to lady Hester Stanhope and her party, and which, though (thank God!) it has not proved a fatal one, has yet been so serious, as to

make me apprehensive lest it should come misrepresented to your ears, and cause, by that means, an unnecessary alarm. Your excellency probably was aware, that her ladyship had left Constantinople for Egypt. A ship of about 1250 tons (as I guess) had been hired, and commodiously fitted up for the voyage. Scarcely had we quitted the canal of the Bosphorus, when a storm arose, and detained us seven days behind the Princes' Islands: so that, at setting out, the weather was against us. This subsided, and we made shift by degrees to reach Scio; where we were detained ten days more by a second, not less furious than the first, though intermitting occasionally. A fair wind at last sprung up; and, reaching the port of Rhodes on the evening of Saturday the 23d, we took our departure thence at midnight, and by Monday afternoon had crossed more than halfway towards Alexandria. I think it was about sunset, that a sirocco sprung up, which by the next morning had become so furious, as to oblige us to wear ship, and retrace our road. On Tuesday and Wednesday the gale continued, acquiring every hour fresh strength; and as Rhodes, for which we were making, required the ship to go with the wind on her beam, our progress had not been so rapid as to bring land in sight. Thursday, about eight o'clock, the ship rolled tremendously, and her foremast, slipping out of its step, made a hole through her bottom. In a quarter of an hour there was a foot water above the ballast, and the leak was then first discovered. The pump was immediately manned, but proved to be useless. All hands were then set to work with buckets, but the leak evidently gained upon us; and the crew, exhausted with fatigue, were on the point of giving themselves up to their fate, when, at two in the afternoon, Mr. Bruce's servant discovered land. The man's emotion was so great, that he fell into an hysteric fit: whilst the rest, borrowing a little fresh vigour,

renewed their baling, in hopes of being able to last out till we reached what was now known to be the southern point of Rhodes. It is not for me to make the eulogium of her ladyship's courage during these awful moments. What little I had myself, I borrowed from the serenity of her looks. At three o'clock we came abreast of the point, but found we were unable to reach the shore. The vessel was water-logged, and we were three miles off. An anchor was let go, but did not hold; and we were told now that our only hope was the long-boat. No time was lost, and each person, with only the clothes he had on his back, got into her, making in all twenty-four. The sea ran mountains high; and on trying to reach the land, it was found that the boat made no head against it. Fortunately, under our lee there was a rock, about a mile from us. We made for this, and in half an hour reached it, all wet from head to foot, and the boat hardly out of the water. But here things wore a worse aspect than ever. The rock produced nothing eatable, had no inhabitants, and no water: and from having fasted two days, owing to sea-sickness, our hunger and thirst were now pretty severe. We stopped here twenty-four hours, in expectation of starving; when the wind subsiding a little, the boat succeeded in crossing to *terra firmu*, and brought us back water and bread. The same night we all embarked, and reached a village on the sea-shore. Thus your excellency will see that, excepting our lives, every thing has been lost; as the ship probably went to the bottom an hour after we left her. Lady Hester, Mr. Bruce, and a gentleman of the name of Pearce, who is of her party, remain until to-morrow at the spot where we landed: I have come forward here to prepare a house for their reception. Not wishing, as I before observed, that any false account of our shipwreck should reach your excellency's ears, I write this letter without her ladyship's

knowledge; persuaded that, if you will pardon the trouble I give you, she will approve what I have done. I am happy to say that, under all this fatigue and wetting, her health has not suffered in the least; and I have the honour to be, &c., CH. LEWIS MERYON.' The pension lady Hester had always received from the British government, as the niece of its great minister, was 900*l*. per annum.

In our first volume we omitted mention of St. Paul's shipwreck in its proper place; but to enable the reader to discover the alleged similitude, as well as to correct our history, we will here give it in St. Luke's beautiful narrative. It was when Porcius Festus had commanded St. Paul to be conveyed a prisoner to be tried at Rome, because he had appealed to Cæsar, that he was carried thither by ship, on reaching the coast from his prison at Cæsarea, in Judæa, as mentioned in vol. i., p. 248, in the year 63.

'And when it was determined that we should sail into Italy, they delivered Paul and certain other prisoners unto one named Julius, a centurion of Augustus' band. And entering into a ship of Adramyttium, we launched, meaning to sail by the coasts of Asia; one Aristarchus, a Macedonian of Thessalonica, being with us. And the next day we touched at Sidon. And Julius courteously entreated Paul, and gave him liberty to go unto his friends to refresh himself. And when we had launched from thence, we sailed under Cyprus, because the winds were contrary. And when we had sailed over the sea of Cilicia and Pamphylia, we came to Myra, a city of Lycia. And there the centurion found a ship of Alexandria sailing into Italy; and he put us therein. And when we had sailed slowly many days, and scarce were come over against Cnidus, the wind not suffering us, we sailed under Crete, over against Salmone; and, hardly passing it, came unto a place which is

called the fair havens ; nigh wherunto was the city of Lasca. Now when much time was spent, and when sailing was now dangerous, because the fast was now already past, Paul admonished them, and said unto them, Sirs, I perceive that this voyage will be with hurt and much damage, not only of the lading and ship, but also of our lives. Nevertheless the centurion believed the master and the owner of the ship, more than those things which were spoken by Paul. And, because the haven was not commodious to winter in, the more part advised to depart thence also, if by any means they might attain to Phenice, and there to winter ; which is an haven of Crete, and lieth toward the south-west and north-west. And when the south wind blew softly, supposing that they had obtained their purpose, loosing thence, they sailed close by Crete. But not long after there arose against it a tempestuous wind, called Euroclydon. And when the ship was caught, and could not bear up into the wind, we let her drive, and running under a certain island which is called Claudia, we had much work to come by the boat : which when they had taken up, they used helps, undergirding the ship ; and, fearing lest they should fall into the quicksands, strake sail, and so were driven. And we being exceedingly tossed with a tempest, the next day they lightened the ship ; and the third day we cast out with our own hands the tackling of the ship. And when neither sun nor stars in many days appeared, and no small tempest lay on us, all hope that we should be saved was then taken away. But after long abstinence, Paul stood forth in the midst of them, and said, Sirs, ye should have hearkened unto me, and not have loosed from Crete, and to have gained this harm and loss. And now I exhort you to be of good cheer : for there shall be no loss of any man's life among you, but of the ship. For there stood by me this night the angel of God, whose I am, and whom

I serve, saying, Fear not, Paul ; thou must be brought before Cæsar : and, lo, God hath given thee all them that sail with thee. Wherefore, sir, be of good cheer : for I believe God, that it shall be even as it was told me. Howbeit we must be cast upon a certain island. But when the fourteenth night was come, as we were driven up and down in Adria, about midnight the shipmen deemed that they drew near to some country ; and sounded, and found it twenty fathoms : and when they had gone a little further, they sounded again, and found it fifteen fathoms. Then fearing lest they should have fallen upon rocks, they cast four anchors out of the stern, and wished for the day. And as the shipmen were about to flee out of the ship, when they had let down the boat into the sea, under colour as though they would have cast anchors out of the foreship, Paul said to the centurion and to the soldiers, Except these abide in the ship, ye cannot be saved. Then the soldiers cut off the ropes of the boat, and let her fall off. And while the day was coming on, Paul besought them all to take meat, saying, This day is the fourteenth day that ye have tarried and continued fasting, having taken nothing. Wherefore I pray you to take some meat : for this is for your health : for there shall not an hair fall from the head of any of you. And when he had thus spoken, he took bread, and gave thanks to God in presence of them all : and when he had broken it, he began to eat. Then were they all of good cheer, and they also took some meat. And we were all in the ship two hundred threescore and sixteen souls. And when they had eaten enough, they lightened the ship, and cast out the wheat into the sea. And when it was day, they knew not the land ; but they discovered a certain creek with a shore, into the which they were minded, if it were possible, to thrust in the ship. And when they had taken up the anchors, they committed themselves unto the sea,

and loosed the rudder bands, and hoisted up the mainsail to the wind, and made toward shore. And falling into a place where two seas met, they ran the ship aground; and the forepart stuck fast, and remained unmoveable, but the hinder part was broken with the violence of the waves. And the soldiers' counsel was to kill the prisoners, lest any of them should swim out, and escape. But the centurion, willing to save Paul, kept them from their purpose; and commanded that they which could swim should cast themselves first into the sea, and get to land: and the rest, some on boards, and some on broken pieces of the ship. And so it came to pass, that they escaped all safe to land. And when they were escaped, then they knew that the island was called Melita. And the barbarous people shewed us no little kindness: for they kindled a fire, and received us every one, because of the present rain, and because of the cold. And when Paul had gathered a bundle of sticks, and laid them on the fire, there came a viper out of the heat, and fastened on his hand. And when the barbarians saw the venomous beast hang on his hand, they said among themselves, No doubt this man is a murderer, whom, though he hath escaped the sea, yet vengeance suffereth not to live. And he shook off the beast into the fire, and felt no harm. Howbeit they looked when he should have swollen, or fallen down dead suddenly: but after they had looked a great while, and saw no harm come to him, they changed their minds, and said that he was a god. In the same quarters were possessions of the chief man of the island, whose name was Publius; who received us, and lodged us three days courteously. And it came to pass, that the father of Publius lay sick of a fever and of a bloody flux: to whom Paul entered in, and prayed, and laid his hands on him, and healed him. So when this was done, others also, which had diseases in

the island, came, and were healed: who also honoured us with many honours; and when we departed, they laded us with such things as were necessary. And after three months we departed in a ship of Alexandria, which had wintered in the isle, whose sign was Castor and Pollux. And landing at Syracuse, we tarried there three days. And from thence we fetched a compass, and came to Rhegium: and after one day the south wind blew, and we came the next day to Puteoli: where we found brethren, and were desired to tarry with them seven days: and so we went toward Rome.'

EDMUND KEAN (1788—1833), son of a London tailor, went to sea as a cabin-boy. Returning penniless, and finding his father dead, he joined a company of strolling players; and happening to perform once in the presence of Dr. Drury (a name singularly propitious to the aspiring son of Thespis) of Eton, that gentleman is said to have taken him into the school, and kept him there three years, until he could read Cicero's orations. He returned, however, to his vagrant life; and the same patron having, some years after, witnessed his performance of Richard III. at Exeter, wrote to one of the committee of Drury Lane, to request the trial of him on the London boards. Upon the actor's arrival in town, the committee, it seems, thought him likely to prove any thing but a prop to the falling fortunes of their house: small in stature, with a slight deformity of back, and limbs possessing nothing approaching to symmetry, together with a voice which, when employed in ordinary converse, had a vulgar coarseness, they tried to evade the agreement which had been precipitately entered into by Arnold with Dr. Drury. Kean, however, nothing daunted, proposed to come out in Shylock, with a view to avoid, it is supposed, the ridicule which the committee expected would be vented upon his figure; and on the evening of January 14, 1814, he made

his *début* before one of the thinnest houses on record. The papers of the next day spoke more than favourably of the attempt; one even asserting 'that a second Garrick had come forth, in whom was an animating soul, distinguishable in all he said and did.' The committee then allowed him to appear as Richard III.; and Kean's success was complete. The whole town was electrified with his performance, the hitherto deserted Drury was crowded night after night to suffocation, and the committee knew not how best to display, on the one hand, their sorrow for their disparagement of the man, and on the other, their joy at the certainty of his ability to fill their coffers. From this happy moment, until his decease in his forty-sixth year, 1833, no one comparable to Kean appeared, on either of the London stages, in the two characters mentioned, or in Othello, Iago, and that whole range of personification, where in the dark cunning of the human heart, with its reckless disregard of all but expediency, is required to be displayed. For the Roman characters of Kemble he was obviously unfit; but he had the versatility of Garrick, and often appeared to great advantage in the same evening both in tragedy and farce. In fact, he had played harlequin when a rover; and could assume any part, in case of emergency, without an actual failure, so varied were his powers.

ALI PACHA, a celebrated Albanian (or Epirote) chief, was son of a person of Tepelin (a town of Albania, opposite to Otranto, in Italy), who had possessed considerable power in Turkey, but who died of grief on being stripped of his territories by the agas. The widowed mother of Ali, being a woman of much energy of character, induced her son to become the leader of a predatory troop of his countrymen, 1770; and with this band he committed so many depredations, that the adjacent tribes took up arms in their own defence, and the inhabitants of Gardiki, in a

nocturnal expedition, carried off his mother and sister from Tepelin, and very nearly surprised himself. The conduct of the victors to their unfortunate captives was so brutal, that the naturally implacable temper of Ali was roused, and he vowed the extermination of the whole race; an oath which, in the sequel, he almost literally executed. For some years he was the sport of various fortune, and at one time was reduced to great poverty: from this he was relieved by the accidental discovery of a chest of buried gold, with which he raised a new body of 2000 men. He now assumed great authority, and (as it is said, by counterfeiting a firman of the sultan) announced himself pacha of Yanina, 1788. This event afforded him the desired opportunity to wreak his vengeance upon the Suliotes, whom he treated with the most horrible barbarity. At length the jealousy of the Porte was excited, and steps were taken to arrest his progress; but Ali had now attained despotic rule, and for several years, with a singular mixture of policy, craft, and courage, set the Ottoman power at defiance. During this interval, his authority was exercised with all the rigour of the most absolute eastern sway; and innumerable striking acts of political ferocity are on record, in proof at once of the cruelty and determination of his character. The insurrection of the Greeks, in 1821, was an event of which he was taking the necessary steps to avail himself, when his fortunes, which had previously begun to yield, sank under the powerful efforts of the Porte; and he was ultimately surprised like a tiger in his den, by the craft of Hussein Pacha, who had been sent to demand his head. On hearing of the arrival of Hussein, and suspecting his intention, Ali retired to a castle which he had built on an abrupt peninsula jutting into the lake, where he kept his principal treasures. Here he threatened to blow himself up, unless he received the emperor's pardon.

This was at last said to be granted, and Ali surrendered. But he was now doomed to experience the same perfidy which so many others had experienced at his own hands. Hussein Pacha, who had gained access to this castle under the pretence of a compromise, no sooner declared his errand, than Ali replied, 'My head is not to be delivered up so easily!' and the fierce old man accompanied the words with a pistol-ball, which broke his opponent's thigh. The selictar of Kourshid Pacha, who had now followed Hussein, hereupon fired at and mortally wounded the old chief, who, notwithstanding, shot two more of his opponents dead upon the spot, and then fell, crying out to one of his attendants, 'to go and kill his favourite concubine, lest she should become the property of his enemies.' Ali's head was cut off and sent to Constantinople, where it was exhibited on the gate of the seraglio; and his sons shared their father's fate. This occurred 1822, Ali being in his 73d year; and the province of Albania was restored to the Porte.

Albania, as possessed by Ali, extended farther southward than the Turkish province, properly so called; including Arta, Missolonghi, and the territory down to the gulf of Lepanto, or Corinth. It was therefore that curved slip of land running 200 miles along the south-east of the gulf of Venice, from Scutari down to the Morca; then turning northwards, it had Rumelia, separated from it by a ridge of mountains, as its eastern boundary up as high as Servia and Bosnia, which formed its northern limit; then turning sharp down again to the south-west, Turkish Dalmatia ran southwards between it and the Mediterranean to Scutari, which completed its circuit. Modern Greece now includes the southern portion of Ali's dominions, as high as the isle of Corfu. The north of the ancient Epirus (the country of Pyrrhus), and the south of the more recent Illyria, occupied what is now Albania proper; that country in

which the Albanian tongue (a mixture of Celtic, Greek, Latin, and Italian) is alone spoken, but never written. The Albanians have always been of a warlike character. They were the soldiers of Pyrrhus, one of the most formidable opponents whom the Romans encountered; and under Scanderbeg, they arrested for a while the tide of Turkish conquest. At present, under the denomination of Arnauts, they rank among the flower of the Ottoman army; and they are found as mercenaries in all parts of Turkey, and in the Barbary states. They take the field without baggage or tents, and are far more active than the generality of the Turkish soldiery, living chiefly on vegetable food, and following the profession of arms till they become decrepit. They call themselves Skipitars, and their country Skiperi; and it is singular that the three men who have attained the greatest eminence under the Turkish sway, in modern times, have been Albanians—Ali Pacha; Bairacter, whose successful rebellion placed the late sultan Mahmud on his throne; and Mehemet Ali, pacha of Egypt, who nearly expelled him from it. Though an Albanian, Ali prided himself on having Romaic (the modern Greek) the language of his court.

PRINCE ALEXANDER YPSILANTI (1792—1828) was the son of the hospodar of Walachia. His father, of an old Greek Fanariot family, succeeded as hospodar, 1802; but being, in three years after his installation, commanded by the grand seignior, his suzerain, to repair to Constantinople, and suspecting that compliance with the mandate would cost him his life, he retired into Russia with his family and followers. There his son Alexander, adopting the military profession, entered the Russian army, and in several battles against the French obtained considerable reputation. He was a captain of hussars, when a ball, at the conflict of Dresden, carried away his right hand; and he was at length

made a major-general, and aide-de-camp to the emperor. In 1820 he became acquainted with the Greek confederates, denominated collectively 'the Hetaireia,' whose resolve was to liberate Greece, the country of his ancestors, from the slavery of the Moslims; and on account of his talents and success as a soldier, but especially for his distinguished birth, he was fixed on by the members of the 'stratocracy,' as a competent person to commence the revolution in Walachia and Moldavia. He must therefore be regarded as the *primum mobile* of Greek emancipation, though the proximate cause (the direct result of his *émeute*) was the sacrifice by the Turkish government of the patriarch of the Greek church, alluded to in the Greek history, 1821. The first reports, indeed, of Ypsilanti's insurrection, appeared of too little consequence to engage the attention of the Porte. The example of a few villages destroyed by fire and massacre, and of the heads of a few hundreds of the captured rebels exhibited over the gates of the seraglio, would, it was expected, be sufficient to restore quiet in Walachia; but when even the Russian boyars had stated their fears of a general rise, to the divan, the Porte thought more of the matter, and called upon the Greek patriarch, who then always resided at Constantinople, to pronounce an anathema against the prince and his associates. The alarm was soon increased in the capital, when it was heard that portions of the Morea were in arms, the chiefs of that part of Greece having formed themselves into 'the senate of Calamata.' Candia, at the same juncture, refused the annual tribute; while the islands of the Archipelago were fitting out fleets in the cause of independence. Both the government and populace of Constantinople soon exhibited the most violent exasperation at the intelligence; many Greeks were seized and executed; and all of that nation who had the means of escape, hastened from a city where they an-

ticipated nothing but insult, torture, and death, the moment that either victory or defeat should rouse in Mohammedan bosoms, exultation in the one case, or revenge in the other. The grand vizir, and many of the agents of government were displaced; and as the naval power of the Greeks threatened to interrupt the communications of the capital with the provinces, the effect of which would be to make the supply of corn insecure, orders were issued to prevent the exportation of grain from the Dardanelles. As this measure seriously affected the interests of the merchants of Odessa, whose principal traffic was thus suspended, baron Strogonov, the Russian ambassador, protested against it, as in direct violation of the treaty of commerce between his court and the Porte. His remonstrance, however, was disregarded, and one more powerful (though the Turks' natural) enemy, was thus raised against the sultan, who, in divan, commanded fresh executions of the Greeks, whereby he at once produced the issue he was labouring to avert. Considering the insurgent people would be stunned and utterly incapacitated by the death of their patriarch, the divan caused that venerable prelate to be seized in his palace, and hung in a public part of Constantinople on Easter-day; many of the Greek churches were razed to the ground; and, as usually happens in 'Istambul' in times of general anxiety, the bigotry of the populace led to excesses not less atrocious than those committed by the government.

But to return to Ypsilanti, on whom even the Russians, as we have said, began to look coldly. The emperor Alexander, when the prince had crossed the Pruth with a few attendants, and on Feb. 23, 1821, at Jassy, the capital of Moldavia, under the very eyes of the hospodar Michael Suzzo, had issued a proclamation announcing 'that Greece that day had kindled the torch of freedom, and thrown off the yoke of tyranny,' caused his name to be struck from

the rolls of the Muscovite army. The prince, however, crippled as he instantly became by the desertion of several respectable Russians from the cause, resolved to proceed; but he was constantly defeated in the futile opposition he made to the Turks in the two provinces. It must be confessed that the choice of the Hetaireia might have fallen on a more efficient leader. The prince displayed, to a posterous degree, a pride and hauteur that disgusted his partisans, as the following statement will show. Instead of mingling with the troops, as a condescending general, he ever kept himself strictly apart from them; and to so high a pitch did he carry his notions of superiority and exclusive rank, that, whenever stationed for any time at a particular spot, he used to cause to be marked out a precise point, designated by himself 'the sacred way,' beyond which no one but his own important person and those of his brothers, were allowed to pass. So ridiculous a pride could not fail of being attended with disadvantageous consequences to the cause in which he had embarked; and when he had lost the battle of Dragachan, through the lukewarmness of his adherents, he threw up his command. Upon crossing the frontier soon after, he was arrested by the Austrians in Transylvania, at the suggestion probably of Russia, and conveyed a state-prisoner to the fortress of Mungatsch in Hungary, but was subsequently removed into Bohemia; and, after some years' incarceration, he was liberated at the solicitation of the emperor Nicholas, and died at Vienna, in his 36th year, 1828.

Ypsilanti, it has been thus shown, did little more than kindle the torch of war. The cruel massacre of the Greek patriarch, and the insult intended by the Moslems to Christianity, when they fixed on Easter Sunday for the deed, were the real acts that roused the slaves of four centuries to a sense of their degradation, and to vengeance; and the cause becoming at once a religious

one—the old contest between believer and infidel—fierce indeed was the struggle, though glorious the result.

LETITIA ELIZA LANDON (1802—1838), better known by her initials of L. E. L., was the daughter of a London army-agent, and was born at Chelsea. When about eighteen, she wrote for the 'Literary Gazette' a series of poetical pieces, which she signed L. E. L.; and these tasteful and talented productions—mostly of the plaintive and 'farewell' kind—brought her into acquaintance with Mrs. Hemans, and other female aspirants after literary fame. She for many subsequent years contributed largely to that class of periodicals styled, and, we feel inclined to think, properly so, 'annuals;' since, from their patch-work and unconnected contrivance, they are little likely to be *perennials*. In June, 1838, Miss Landon married Mr. George Maclean, who had been appointed governor of the Sierra Leone colony, whither she instantly departed with her husband; but the painful intelligence arrived in England in the autumn of the same year, that she had suddenly died at the colony, October 15th, from the effects of an over-dose of prussic acid, taken to allay spasmodic pains of the stomach.

JOHN ABERNETHY (1764—1831), a distinguished English surgeon, born in Ireland, who, by his work on the 'Constitutional Origin and Treatment of Local Diseases,' established the important principle, that local affections are the result of constitutional derangement,—not primary and independent maladies,—and that they are to be cured by remedies calculated to make a salutary impression on the general frame,—not by topical dressing, nor by any mere manipulation of surgery. Surgery, upon the admission of this hypothesis, rose from the rank of an art to that of a science. As Abernethy affirmed that the digestive organs are always either the cause of local disease, or sympathise deeply therewith, by being ori-

ginally or consequently deranged, his attention was ever directed to them ; and however his 'blue pill' may have become a source of merriment, and even derision, from his laughable pertinacity in enjoining its use upon the first sight of his patient, he is allowed to have conferred, by the establishment of his doctrine, most valuable benefits on the community. Again, the same philosophical view of the structure and functions of the human frame, which enabled this sensible physiologist so greatly to improve the theory and practice of surgery, suggested, and at the same time armed him with the courage to perform, two operations, bolder than any that had ever before been achieved, and the repetition of which has since been attended with splendid success—namely, the tying of the carotid and external iliac arteries. The announcement of the performance of these first-rate operations, at once established Abernethy's reputation as a surgeon, and increased the credit of the English school throughout Europe.

As a lecturer, Mr. Abernethy was particularly happy in being able to communicate, in the clearest language and liveliest manner, what he had to say to his pupils ; and indeed it was commonly impossible to mistake his meaning. In his private and domestic character, he was a most upright, amiable, cheerful person—highly honourable in all transactions, and incapable of duplicity, meanness, artifice, or servility. In his family circle he was a very delightful man—a good husband, a kind and judicious father. To his patients he was often, notwithstanding, rough ; but this was mainly when he was teased, and his time had been taken up with lengthened details of their sufferings by applicants for his advice. He was most impartial in his attention to those so consulting him at his house—for he chiefly acted as what is termed 'a consulting surgeon ;' and even when a royal duke, on one occasion, expressed a great dislike to wait until a

room-ful of patients had been examined, the pathologist delayed him until his proper turn.

Temperance in diet was one-half the remedy proposed by this celebrated man to one-half of those who came for his advice ; and the following is his own statement in allusion to a judicious low diet. 'I could relate many instances of persons who were much emaciated, some of them of considerable stature, becoming muscular and even fat upon four ounces of the most nourishing and easily digestible food, taken three times a day. A quaker, one of my patients, gave me the following account of his own proceeding with respect to diet. 'When thou toldest me (said he) to weigh my food, I did not tell thee that I was in the habit of weighing myself, and that I had lost 14 pounds' weight per month, for many months before I saw thee. By following thy advice, however, I have got rid of what thou didst consider a very formidable local malady ; and, upon thy allowance of food, I have regained my flesh, and feel as competent to exertion as formerly, though I am not indeed so fat as I used to be. I own to thee, that as I got better, I thought thy allowance very scanty, and being strongly tempted to take more food, I did so ; but, as I continued the practice of weighing myself, I found that I regularly lost weight upon an increased quantity of food—wherefore I gladly returned to that amount which thou hadst prescribed, and find myself monthly increasing in heaviness.' The great example, however, that Abernethy delighted to quote and enforce was that of Cornaro, who (*see* vol. ii., p. 66), by his measured abstinence, enabled his frame, emaciated by early intemperance of every description, to regain a degree of strength, that produced a continued flow of good spirits, and an endurance until a century old. 'The world eats and drinks two-thirds too much at all times', was his frequent observation ; and he as often talked

awfully of the putrefactive and acetous fermentations that result from overloading the stomach, producing terrible commotions therein. We have said that he was occasionally rough to his patients; and we will endeavour to show, by a few examples, how far his conduct in that way was provoked, and to a certain degree, therefore, venial. The statements are all authentic.

A noble personage, a long time occupying a post of great responsibility in Ireland, had been waiting a considerable time in Abernethy's ante-room, when, seeing those who had arrived before him successively called in, he became impatient, and sent in his card. No notice was taken of the *move*: he despatched a second card, another, another, and another— and still he gained no answer. At length came his *turn* for admission; and, full of positive choler, he asked, with a degree of asperity that would have put ordinary men off their guard, why he had been so long kept waiting!—‘Whew!’ responded Abernethy, without hesitation, ‘simply because you didn’t come sooner. And, if your lordship will sit down, I will hear what you have to say.’ But before we proceed to a second illustration, we will attempt to give a slight picture, so far as description will serve, of one whom, knowing his private virtues long and well, we were compelled, notwithstanding a pettishness generated by his daily harass, to admire and esteem. Let the reader imagine an elderly, sleek, and venerable-looking man, approaching seventy years of age, rather (as novel-writers say) below than above the middle height, somewhat inclined to corpulency, and upright in his carriage withal, with his hair most primly powdered, and nicely curled round his brow and temples: let him imagine such a person habited in sober black, his feet thrust carelessly into a pair of slippers, and his hands into the pockets of his ‘peculiar,’—and he has then, as far as he can do without the lineaments of his face from

the limner, ‘the glorious John’ of the profession before his eyes. We will now give a colloquy which occurred between the pathologist and one of our friends; its characteristic and useful nature being the best excuse for its insertion. Having entered Mr. Abernethy’s room, our friend opened the proceedings. ‘I wish you to ascertain (said he) what is the matter with my eye, sir. It is very painful, and I am afraid there is some great mischief going on—’ ‘Which I can’t see,’ interrupted Abernethy, at the same time placing his patient before the window, and looking closely at the eye. ‘But—’ continued our friend—‘Which I can’t see,’ again said, or rather *sang*, the professor. ‘Perhaps not, sir, but—’ ‘Now don’t bother!’ ejaculated the other, ‘but sit down, and I’ll tell you all about it.’ Our friend sat down accordingly, while Mr. Abernethy, standing with his back against the table, thus began.

‘I take it for granted that, in consulting me, you wish to know what I should do for myself, were I in a predicament similar to your own. Now, I have no reason to suppose that *you* are in *any* particular predicament; and the terrible mischief which you apprehend, depends, I take it, altogether upon the stomach. Mind—at present, I have no reason to believe that there is any thing else the matter with you.’ Here our friend was about to disclose sundry dreadful maladies with which he thought himself affected; but he was interrupted with ‘Diddle-dum, diddle-dum, diddle-dum dee!’ uttered or half sung in the same smooth tone as the previous part of the address—and he was silenced. ‘Now, your stomach being out of order,’ continued Abernethy, ‘it is my duty to explain to you how to put it to rights again; and I shall give you an illustration of my position—for I like to tell what I have to say, in a manner that people will remember. The kitchen, that is, your stomach, being out of order, the garret (point-

ing to the head) cannot be right; and egad! every room in the house becomes affected. Repair the injury in the kitchen—remedy the evil there—(*now don't bother*)—and all will be right. This you must do by diet. If you put improper food into your stomach, you play the very deuce with it, and with the whole machine besides. Vegetable matter, in your case, ferments, and becomes gaseous; while animal substances, in the queer condition of your digestive organs, are changed into a putrid, abominable, and acrid stimulus. (*Don't bother, again.*) You are going to ask, 'What has all this to do with my eye?' I will tell you. Anatomy teaches us that the outer skin is only a continuation of the membrane which lines the stomach; and your own observation will inform you, that the delicate linings of the mouth, throat, nose, and eyes, are nothing more. Now, some people acquire preposterous noses, others blotches on the face and different parts of the body, others inflammation of the eyes—all arising from irritation of the skin of the stomach. People laugh at me for talking so much about the stomach. I sometimes tell what I have told you to forty people in a morning; and some won't listen to me—and so we quarrel, and they go and abuse me all over the town. But yesterday I told a mother, who brought her girl to me, thoroughly pulled down in constitution by the dosing of some quack, because forsooth the child had complained of a pain in her leg, which had been treated as the result of a redundancy of oil in the knee-joint, that she had nothing now to do but to begin with roast-beef and plum-pudding—and she went away so incensed, that I dare say I shall hear of it again. But the truth must be told—even if people *will* consult me, when they have been half killed elsewhere. I can't help it—they come to me for my advice, and I give it them if they will take it. I can't do any more. Well, sir, now as to the ques-

tion of diet. Don't believe what some say, that when a lady of rank asked me once, as pretty many ladies do, whether she might eat this or that, I 'brutally' told her, 'My lady, you mustn't think of eating the poker and tongs, for they are rather hard of digestion, nor would I recommend the bellows, since you might find them somewhat windy,'—no, sir, I haven't even wit enough for that; but I confess I have now and then recommended for the nonce a good dinner, where my patient has been wrongly on the starving system. But for you, I must refer you to *my book* (here the professor smiled, and continued smiling as he proceeded); there are only about a dozen pages—and you will find, beginning at page 73, all that it is necessary for you to know. I am called 'Doctor My-Book,' and satirized all over England by that name; but who would sit and listen to a lecture of even twelve pages, or remember one-half of it when it was done? So I have reduced my directions into writing; and there they are for any body to follow, if they please. Having settled the question of diet, we now come to medicine. It is, or ought to be, the province of a medical man, to sooth and assist nature, not to force her. Now, the only medicine I should advise you to take, is a dose of a slight aperient every morning the first thing. I wont stipulate for the dose, as that must be regulated by circumstances; but you *must* take *some*—for without it, egad, your stomach will never be right. People go to Harrogate, and Buxton, and Bath, and the deuce knows where, to drink the waters; and they return full of admiration at their surprising efficacy. Now these waters contain next to nothing of purgative medicine; but they are taken readily, regularly, and in such quantities as to produce the desired effect. You must persevere in this plan, sir, until you experience relief, which you certainly will do.' And thus ended a colloquy wherein is mingled much

good sense, useful advice, and whimsicality. A third example was in a lady's—a loquacious lady's case; and she could not be silenced by the pathologist, until he had resorted to the following expedient. 'Put out your tongue, madam,' said he. The lady complied. 'Now keep it there,' continued he, sternly, 'until I have done talking.' A fourth conference was also with a lady. She brought her little girl, fat and blooming—indeed, egregiously fat—and drowned Mr. Abernethy's voice by her description of the symptoms of a liver affection which she considered the cause of her child's bloated state. 'Give me my fee, ma'am,' roared out the professor; and upon her putting a pound and a shilling upon the table, he took up the shilling, and placing it in her hand again, said in a most solemn voice—'Madam, with that buy a skipping-rope for your daughter, and let her eat just half what she has been accustomed to do;' at the same time ringing the bell for his servant to show her out. The last instance of his *brusquerie* that we need quote, was still more characteristic of the man. He kept his pills in a bag; and used to dole them out to his patients; and on once doing so to a lady of title (she was the youthful wife of an earl), she declared 'they would make her sick,—and she never *could* take a pill.' 'Not take a pill!' was the surprised exclamation of the pathologist, 'why, what a *fool* your ladyship must be!' It may be as well to say that the countess, who had heard of his peculiarities, took no offence at so ungallant a reply. Mr. Abernethy died, aged 66, 1831.

The aspects and prospects of surgery, from the days wherein Mr. Abernethy gave the science its first modern spur, have been highly cheering both to the practitioner of medicine, and to the general philanthropist. Hitherto the former had been too often ignorantly undermining the frame, by too exclusive an attention to local remedies; while the latter

had the painful task of seeing his fellow-creatures groaning under a mass of desperate ailments, such as the cancer and the stone, which nothing but the energetic application of the knife, at the imminent risk of the patient's life, could remove. But by closely combining surgery with the study of nature and physiology, a number of preventing and prophylactic minor operations (nay, what may be called no operations at all) have caused a host of desperate trials of the vital powers of the body to become wholly needless.

ASTLEY PASTON COOPER (1768—1841), son of a divine, was born at Brook, Norfolk, and after an education under his father, was apprenticed at fifteen to an apothecary at Yarmouth. Under Mr. Clive, the eminent London surgeon, he entered the surgical profession; and his attachment to and labours in the dissecting-room, marked him for a zealous practitioner. A course of lectures on the principles and practice of surgery, which he delivered at Guy's and St. Thomas's hospitals, brought him into general notice; and so devoted did he become to this branch of duty, that, on the very evening of his marriage, he descanted publicly to some anatomical pupils, without naming to them his Benedictine change. He commenced practice on his own account, 1792, and from that period, till 1815, rose gradually in public estimation, until his fees far exceeded in amount those of any other member of his profession—averaging annually 20,000*l*. In 1821 he was made a baronet by George IV., sergeant-surgeon, and surgeon to the king; while Oxford gave him the degree of doctor of civil law. But this accumulation of honours and fortune by no means led to a relaxation of Sir Astley's practice, or physiological studies; and he has given to the world the result of his anatomical labours in some most elaborate and finely-illustrated works. Sir Astley died at his seat near Hemel Hempstead, Herts,

aged 73, 1841, having honourably accumulated half a million of money.

SIR SIDNEY SMITH (1764—1840), son of a captain in the army, was born in Kent, and educated under Dr. Knox, at Tunbridge school, from eight to fourteen. In 1780 he entered the navy as a lieutenant, was so early as 1786 a commander, and in 1788 obtained post rank and the command of the *Nemesis* of twenty-eight guns. On the conclusion of the American war, he entered first the Swedish, and then the Turkish service; but hearing that Lord Hood had got possession of Toulon, he hastened thither, and offered his services, which were accepted; and on the evacuation of that city, he was deputed to destroy the French dock-yard and arsenal. He succeeded in firing ten ships of the line, the arsenal, and the mast-house. In a gallant attempt, 1796, to cut out a ship at Havre, he was taken prisoner by the French, and detained two years at Toulon; when, through the aid of a French officer, M. Philippeaux, he escaped in an open boat to England. He was instantly sent to the Mediterranean, where, in October, 1799, he was appointed to direct the blockade of Alexandria. On the 15th of that month he proceeded to St. Jean d'Acre, then besieged by the French; and by his astonishing exertions, he preserved the place, though not without an enormous loss of lives. The siege was raised on the 20th of May; and Sir Sidney shortly afterwards received a splendid sabre and aigrette from the grand seignior, and the thanks of both houses of parliament, for his services. In 1801 he co-operated, at the head of a party of seamen, with the army sent out to Egypt under Abercromby; and in the battle which proved fatal to that eminent commander, he received a wound. At the latter end of the year he received a valuable sword, with the freedom of the city, from the corporation of London; and at the general election, 1802, he was returned for Rochester. During

the short time he remained in parliament, he spoke on various occasions. As soon as the French war broke out, he offered his services, and was appointed to the *Antelope*, of fifty guns, with the command of a flying squadron; and in 1804, he was made a colonel of marines. In 1805 he was raised to the rank of rear-admiral of the blue; and in 1806, he hoisted his flag on board the *Pompey*, of eighty guns, in which he proceeded to the Mediterranean. When sir Sidney reached that station, Lord Collingwood gave him the command of a small squadron, intended to harass the French in the kingdom of Naples, which they had recently conquered. With this force he obliged the island of Capri to surrender. In 1807 he was appointed to remove the Portuguese royal family to Brazil; and during the same year he distinguished himself under admiral Duckworth against the Turks, in the Dardanelles. In 1809 he commanded a squadron on the South American station, a detachment of which, under captain Yeo, expelled the French from Cayenne. On the 11th of October, 1809, he married the widow of sir George Rumbold. In 1812, he was appointed second in command of the Mediterranean fleet; and on the termination of the war with France, 1814, after remaining a short time in England, he took up his residence in Paris, *graduating* in 1821 a full admiral. He died, much respected, at Paris, aged 76, 1840, and was interred in the cemetery of Père la Chaise, by bishop Luscombe. Some circumstances which brought sir Sidney into connexion with 'the delicate investigation,' as it was styled, or, in other words, the inquiry which was set on foot into the moral conduct of the princess of Wales, 1809, are said to have occasioned the gallant sailor's subsequent preference of a foreign residence; and the same ground has been assigned for the little reward he ever received for his very important services to the nation. Sir Robert Peel, as premier, has recently

proposed a monument, however, in memory of them.

CONTEMPORARIES. — WILLIAM KITCHENER, an English physician, who devoted the greater portion of his days to a work entitled 'The Cook's Oracle,' being an attempt to advance the culinary art to the rank of a science. In this the doctor has been thought to have succeeded; but his book will probably be read, on account of the entertainment it affords, much more by the consumers than by the preparers of feasts, in the same way that 'Walton's Angler' has had more admirers among the fish-eaters than the fish-catchers. Another work of Dr. Kitchener will be found of more utility, his 'Art of Prolonging Life;' the good sense, wit, and cheerfulness of which will always render it popular. Dr. Kitchener's practice as a physician was not great. Attachment to extra-professional matters is proverbially reckoned an obstacle to success at the bar; but in the case of medicine, it is a positive preclusion. It matters not that professional abilities of the highest order are often associated with general literary and other acquirements,—the attachment to those extra matters bars the access to fortune. The physician who cultivates letters, will be balked of his professional expectations, and be stigmatized as a mere paper-stainer by the chief of his brethren of the faculty. Dr. Kitchener died suddenly, in his sleep, 1827. CASPAR HAUSER.—In May, 1828, a citizen of Nuremberg, in Bavaria, was proceeding from his house to take a walk, when he perceived a young man in the dress of a peasant, standing in a singular posture, and apparently intoxicated. On approaching him, he offered him a letter, addressed to a military officer in Nuremberg, whither, as he found the youth could walk, he at once conducted him. He spoke nothing but a sort of gibberish; and the officer, finding the letter he produced a trick of some supposed deluder of the youth, gave him over to the city

police. It was soon noised about that a young savage had been found, who, like Peter the Wild Boy of old, had never conversed with men; and he was accordingly visited by the curious and the wealthy, and attempted to be educated—no easy task, since it appeared that he neither understood colours, heard sounds correctly, nor was advanced in intellect beyond an infant in the cradle. At length earl Stanhope, the eccentric English peer, met with him; and being readily assured that he was some Hungarian noble's son cast off by his parents, he removed him to Anspach, and placed him under the care of a respectable tutor. Now that he could speak German, Hauser favoured the report of his being 'a very great lord's son,' and, to support the cheat (for it was eventually found out that he was an arrant impostor), wounded himself with a knife, alleging that some of his cruel family, on discovering that the earl had taken him under his protection, had meditated his destruction. For a time he obtained crowds of sympathizers; but on finding the public grow careless about his wound, he inflicted on himself another, which he affirmed to have been given him by a man in the dark, of which wound, though a very slight one, he died, December, 1833. The impostor's real designation has never been discovered; but his assumed name will serve as a hint to future psychologists, not hastily to write books on the powers of the human mind and intelligence, from any peculiarities they may note in 'wild boys.' The tricks of 'the princess Caraboo' in the same line, in England, who proved to be a run-away Magdalen, should have prevented the eccentric earl (as they were played off so short a period before Hauser's,) from giving colour as he did to so silly a delusion. MARIA LUIGI CHERUBINI (1760—1842), born at Florence, studied music under the Felici, and made such rapid progress, that at thirteen he wrote a mass, which was publicly

performed, and brought him fame. Leopold II., grand-duke of Tuscany, now patronised him, and gave him a pension to pursue his studies under Sarti, at Bologna. In 1784 he visited London for a time, but at length accepted the superintendence of the Italian opera at Paris, 1788; in which capacity, he (though a Florentine), formed a new French school of music, and produced his sterling, but ill-understood works, 'Elisa,' 'Medea,' and 'Les Deux Journées.' Finding himself unnoticed by Napoleon, he removed to Vienna; where he wrote his 'Faniska,' and where he remained as an *attaché* of the opera, until the restoration of the Bourbons, 1814, brought him again to Paris. He was now made chapel-master to Louis XVIII.; and he held that post, with the professorship of composition in the Conservatoire, until his decease, aged 82. In scenes of tragic passion, Cherubini has never been surpassed; and Medea's supplication, 'Vous voyez de nos fils,' is one of his highest flights. The magnificence of the vocal and orchestral combinations in his operas has hardly yet been appreciated by the French; the Bavarians, however, have done him justice at Munich; and it is to be hoped he will not be lost sight of in England. JOSEPH NOLLEKENS, born in London, was brought up a sculptor, and repaired to Rome to study under Cavaceppi. After a stay of nine years in the capitol, he returned to England, 1770, soon after married the youngest daughter of Mr. Justice Welch, with a handsome fortune, and under the patronage of George III., acquired 200,000*l.* in his profession. His chisel was distinguished for an accurate imitation of nature, and by the absence of all mannerism. His 'Venus with the Sandal' is his principal production in the ideal line of art; but his professional reputation rests upon his busts. He died, aged 85, 1823. CHARLES ALFRED STOTHARD (1789—1821), was brought up a painter by his father, Thomas Stothard, R. A., and espe-

cially turned his mind to copying ancient effigies and costume with accuracy. In 1810, his picture of the death of Richard II. attracted great attention, for its fidelity in the latter respect; and soon after, he began his admirable periodical work of the monumental effigies of Great Britain. In 1816 he copied the Bayeux tapestry for the Antiquarian Society, proving it, from internal evidence, to be contemporary with the period succeeding the Norman conquest, in refutation of the objections of the abbé de la Rue. While copying some stained glass in the window of Bere Ferrers church, Devon, to illustrate Lysons' *Magna Britannia*, the ladder on which he stood unfortunately slipped, and he was killed by falling against the marble monument of a knight in the chancel, aged 32, 1821. He lies buried in the church which was the scene of the accident. JOHN CALLCOTT, who gave up medicine for music, took his degree of Mus. D. at Oxford, and devoted his leisure to the compilation of a musical dictionary, which he did not live to complete. His 'Forgive, blest shade, this tributary tear,' would of itself establish his fame as a musical composer. He died 1821, aged 55. CHARLES LAMB, after an education in Christ's hospital, became a clerk in the India-house, and occupied his post there thirty-six years. He died, aged 60, 1834. His 'Essays by Elia,' and the light he has thrown upon the literature of Shakspeare's day, merit the highest praise; indeed, his remarks on the works of the great bard's contemporaries gave a new tone to modern criticism, and were the means of reviving and bringing into general estimation that great body of dramatists. EDMUND LODGE, born in London 1756, became a cornet of dragoons 1772, but left the army, to indulge his propensity for literature. Obtaining an appointment in the Heralds' college, London, he gradually rose, between 1780 and 1838, to the honourable post of *Clarencieux*; and during his career as a

herald, he made himself known to the public by his 'Memoirs of Illustrious Personages of Great Britain,' and other like works, which he illustrated with splendidly engraven portraits. He died, aged 83, 1839. CHARLES ROSSI (1762—1839), born in Nottingham, became a student of the royal academy, and was sent to Rome for three years to study sculpture. He was patronized by George IV. and William IV., and has left many very fair specimens of his taste and talent; such as his monuments to general Le Marchant (his best performance) and marquis Cornwallis, in St. Paul's cathedral. He died, aged 77, 1839. THOMAS HAYNES BAYLEY (1798—1839), born of a respectable family, is only known to the world by his production of numerous pathetic ballads, the result, it is said, of his fallen fortunes; being compelled, on having dissipated a fortune, to write for his bread. His 'Oh, no! we never mention her,' 'I'd be a butterfly,' and similar lyric trifles, are still popular. He died, aged 41, 1839. JOHN GALT (1779—1839), born at Irvine, Ayrshire, appeared as a literary devotee at Greenock, 1802; but he subsequently went to America, and purchased lands in Upper Canada. His ill success as a farmer drove him back to Scotland, where he now became popular for his 'Lawrie Todd,' 'Ayrshire Legatees,' and other works of fiction. He died at Greenock, aged 60, 1839. ARCHIBALD ALISON (1757—1839), born at Glasgow, was educated at that university and Balliol college, Oxford, and took holy orders in the church of England. His essay 'On the nature and principles of Taste' brought him into public notice, 1790; soon after which he took up his constant abode in Glasgow, as minister of an episcopal chapel there. He was the friend of Dugald Stewart, Playfair, and other men of science, and died, aged 82, 1739. Mr. Alison's 'Sermons' and other printed works prove that he was guided, as a writer, by the principles for which

he so skilfully contended in his earlier days; and he is further to be mentioned as a most worthy man and sound divine. CHARLES MATHEWS, a comedian of varied talents, who was at length enabled to amuse a whole audience by his own unaided exertions, in a series of entertainments under such titles as 'Mr. Mathews at Home,' 'My Youthful Days,' and so forth. The great merit of Mathews consisted in his able attacks upon the reigning follies of the day; not, like Foote, wounding by his ridicule of unavoidable physical infirmities. He even saw his error in once attempting to imitate the mere manner of lord Ellenborough when on the bench, and abstained in future from what he thought likely to be misinterpreted by the vulgar. Seated before a small table covered with green cloth to the floor, with two lamps thereon, this master of his art, by aid of a few articles of apparel for disguise, would assume a dozen characters, changing look, manner, voice, and every other delineation, as rapidly as he put on the dress. Persons who had not seen him, could seldom understand how an individual could amuse an audience for three hours together, when a whole company so often fail to effect that object. He died 1835, aged 59. JOSEPH GRIMALDI, perhaps the only clown who has yet appeared on the stage of history, gave a degree of dignity to pantomimic exhibitions, by his chaste and talented style of acting. Although irresistibly humorous, his efforts were always free from buffoonery and indecency. He was of Italian origin, and much given to melancholy; and when he quitted the London stage, 1825, he took with him all that was valuable in the representations he had so long upheld. He died, aged 58, 1837. THOMAS DIBDIN, son of Charles Dibdin, the naval song writer, became an actor at four years of age, as Cupid in the pageant of Shakespeare's 'Jubilee' at Stratford-on-Avon. In 1799 he was engaged as a

writer for the Covent-garden stage ; and during fourteen years he supported his family by this species of authorship. His play of 'The Cabinet' is his most regular production ; but his pantomime of 'Harlequin and Mother Goose' assuredly brought him most 'golden eggs.' A careless domestic management plunged the author into frequent debt and difficulty ; but though long a prisoner in the King's-bench on this account, he contrived to nourish his spirit 'even under the ribs of death,' by turning lessee of the Surrey theatre, in the neighbourhood of his house of incarceration. Perhaps it is fair to say that, under his rule, that play-house first rose to respectability ; and that, by his due restraints upon a class of vicious frequenters of it, he effected considerable moral good. The lords of the admiralty eventually relieved him from his embarrassments, at least in a great measure, by employing him on a reprint of his father's loyal songs ; and he died, much esteemed, aged 70, 1841. GIAN BATTISTA BELZONI, born at Padua, was driven from home during the French invasion, and endeavoured to get a livelihood in London by feats of strength, which he exhibited at Astley's amphitheatre. He afterwards devoted himself to the search after antiquities ; and with that view visited Egypt, where he examined the pyramids, and found an entrance into one of those of Ghizeh. Having conveyed to his native Padua, as a present, two lion-headed statues of granite, he returned to England, to publish a narrative of his discoveries. He again embarked, 1823, for the west coast of Africa, where, on reaching Benin, he was seized with dysentery, and died. HENRY RAEBURN, son of a manufacturer at Stockbridge, was apprenticed to a goldsmith at Edinburgh, and while in his indentures, evinced an extraordinary skill for miniature-painting. He commenced portrait-painter, therefore, when his term had expired, married a person with some little property, and then

visited London, to obtain an introduction to sir Joshua Reynolds. That excellent artist strongly recommending him to visit Italy, he did so in 1785 ; and, after spending two years there, he established himself at Edinburgh, and became the founder of a resident school of Scottish painting. King George IV., on his visit to North Britain, 1822, knighted him, and constituted him his painter for Scotland ; but he survived these honours only a year, dying, aged 67, 1823. DAVID DOUGLAS, the indefatigable botanist, had been a gardener in lord Mansfield's service, and by the patronage of Dr. Hooker, of Glasgow, was enabled to make an excursion in search of plants through the Highlands of Scotland. This brought him before the London horticultural society, and he was commissioned to travel in North and South America for specimens ; to which journey we are mainly indebted for our clarkias, dahlias, and a host of modern ornamental shrubs and plants. The first dahlias, however, seen in Europe, were carried first to Madrid by Andrew *Dahl*, a Swedish botanist, (whence the name of the plant,) 1790, who had travelled in Mexico and Peru some years earlier than Douglas. The hothouse Douglas also materially enriched by splendid pines and grapes ; and he was the first to call attention to the extraordinary vitality of seeds. The last fact has been recently confirmed by the scientific Mr. Pettigrew, who planted some wheat, found by sir Gardener Wilkinson in a tomb at Thebes in a vase hermetically sealed ; and out of twelve seeds sown, he obtained one plant, which grew five feet high, and matured the corn in the ear. The wheat must have lain in the tomb at least thirty centuries. Mr. Douglas's death took place at Hilo, one of the Sandwich islands, 1834, while engaged in fresh researches ; his body being found by the natives at the bottom of a wild cattle trap, wherein was a bullock that had trampled him to death.

SOVEREIGNS. TURKEY.—1808,

Mahmud II. Khan. POPES.—1800, Pius VII.; 1823, Leo XII. FRANCE.—1814, Louis XVIII.; 1815, Napoleon Buonaparte restored, then Louis XVIII. again; 1824, Charles X. RUSSIA.—1801, Alexander I.; 1825, Nicolas I. SWEDEN and NORWAY.—1818, Charles XIV. (Bernadotte.) DENMARK.—1808, Frederick VI. PORTUGAL.—1816, John VI.; 1826, Interregnum: 1828, Dom Miguel. SPAIN.—1808, Ferdinand VII. AUSTRIA (late Germany).—1792, Francis II. PRUSSIA.—1797, Frederick William III. NETHERLANDS.—1815, William I. Two SICILIES.—1815, Ferdinand IV. of

Naples restored as Ferdinand I.; 1825, Francis I. SARDINIA.—1802, Victor Emanuel; 1821, Charles Felix I. PERSIA.—1796, Futtch Ali Khan. KAUBUL.—1818, Ayub; 1823, Habib Oolah Khan, usurper; 1824, Dost Mohammed, usurping amir. SIKHS.—1798, Runjeet Singh. CHINA.—1795, Kia-King; 1820, Tao-Kouen. BAVARIA.—1805, Maximilian I. Joseph; 1825, Lewis I. WURTEMBERG.—1806, Frederick I.; 1816, William I. SAXONY.—1806, Frederick I.; 1827, Antony I. HANOVER.—1815, George III. of Great Britain; 1820, George IV.

REIGN CLXXV.

WILLIAM IV., KING OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

1830 TO 1837—7 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—William IV. was the third son of George III., and had been educated a sailor. He was born at St. James's, 1765, and was created duke of Clarence, and earl of Munster, 1789. Under admiral Digby, the young prince bore a part in the great naval engagement between the English and Spanish fleets, commanded by admirals Rodney, and don Juan de Langara. By Mrs. Jordan he had eight children, whom, on coming to the throne, he raised to the honorary rank of a marquis's family, creating the eldest son an earl: 1. George, surnamed Fitzclarence, earl of Munster; 2. lord Frederick Fitzclarence; 3. lord Augustus; 4. lady Sophia; 5. lady Mary; 6. lady Elizabeth; 7. lady Augusta; 8. lady Amelia. In person, king William considerably resembled his royal father. He was frank and unreserved in manner; and from having been little accustomed to courts, was much averse from the restraining formalities of high station. His habits of life were domestic and simple; while, in the routine of every day business, he was remarkable for regularity and despatch. Attached to his friends, forgetful of injuries, and anxious for the happiness, not only of those immediately connected with him, but of his people at large, and moreover attentive to all duties, religious and moral, during the short period of his reign, he went to his grave, at the mature age of seventy-two, universally lamented. In 1818, his majesty had married Adelaide, daughter of the duke of Saxe-Meiningen, who survives him, but by whom he has left no issue; a princess, of whom it may be said, without the slightest imputation of flattery, that she is constantly occupied in the performance of her Christian duties, her majesty's chief delight being to alleviate, by an extraordinary munificence and benignity, the need and the sorrows of her suffering fellow-creatures.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—Although king William, just previously to his accession, 1830, declared, in speaking at a public assembly, 'that he knew not how it was, but he never had been a favourite with the nation,' his advancement to the throne was hailed with an abundant display of loyal feeling.

He had scarcely received the congratulations of his subjects, when a new revolution among the French compelled the abdication of Charles X., and raised Louis Philippe, duc of Orleans, to the sovereignty of that change-loving people. To this *émulate* succeeded an insurrection of the people of Belgium, a country which, upon the overthrow of Buonaparte, had been annexed to Holland, whose sovereign ruled over both Dutch and Belgians, with the title of king of the United Netherlands. The Belgians, however, were opposed to the Dutch in character, religion, and language; and it wanted nothing but the example which France had just set, to fan the bickering which had long existed into the flame of rebellion. Declaring themselves independent, therefore, the Belgians offered their crown to a son of the new king of the French; but he refusing it, prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, the widower of the princess Charlotte of England, was eventually invested with the dignity, 1831. The consequences of these changes were sensibly felt throughout Europe; the Poles, aspiring after their ancient freedom, were again in open rebellion against the Russians, and expelled their governor, the archduke Constantine, from the country; the young duke of Brunswick was ejected from his dominions, and replaced by his brother; Spain was thrown into anarchy by the intrigues of the exiled constitutionalists; the king of Saxony, expecting an uproar, was glad to resign his power into the hands of his nephew; and the elector of Hesse, to avoid expulsion, granted a constitutional charter to his people. Even the Brazilians rose upon their new emperor, and compelled him to fly, and the Greeks murdered their president, Capo d'Istria. England herself was in an irritated state from the same cause; and the autumn of the year 1830 was marked by a series of rural attacks upon the machinery lately introduced amongst English agriculturists. Stacks and barns were burned, cattle hamstrung, and farmhouses plundered; and prompt measures were requisite to subdue the rioters. The Irish peasantry, too, were both starving and clamorously calling for a repeal of the Union; which, now that Catholic emancipation had been effected without any beneficial result, was considered by them as the ground of all their evils.

The most important feature in the reign of king William, however, was the carrying of the question of Reform, which had been agitated for nearly half a century in vain. His majesty, though favourable to the question, and to the general whig opinions, had, at his accession, retained the tory ministry of his predecessor and brother, who were necessarily unfriendly to the innovations which 'reform' involved; but the opposition to that cabinet, at whose head was the duke of Wellington, was so marked on the opening of his first parliament, November, 1830, that king William permitted earl Grey to form an administration from the whig party. In March, 1831, the Reform Bill was accordingly introduced by lord John Russell, the leader of the new cabinet in the house of commons; but the measure was found to involve too extensive a change of the existing system, to meet with the cordial approbation of the then members. All boroughs having less than 2000 resident householders were to be disfranchised; such as possessed above 3000 but under 4000, were to return only one member, instead of two; and the rights of representation thus shorn from one class of towns, was to be bestowed on the great manufacturing ones, on a new division of London into four districts, and on the counties, divided for the first time into two or more portions. The ministry accordingly, on the second reading of the bill, obtained a majority of only one vote; and being subsequently defeated on two divisions, they were compelled either to resign, or to dissolve the parliament. The latter alternative was adopted, as his majesty showed a resolution to support the cabinet; and 'an appeal to the nation' was then made, as the sudden

breaking up of one parliament, in order to try a great question by another, is technically styled.

As this measure, when ultimately carried, effected the greatest change the English constitution has yet experienced, we must pause to afford the general reader (by the only example of senatorial eloquence we have given throughout our work), an opportunity of forming a judgment on the arguments advanced on either side, by the movers of so momentous a question. It is an invidious task, where there were so many gifted orators, to select; but for constitutional and historical knowledge, we are inclined to propose for his perusal the speech of Mr. John Heywood Hawkins, the member for Newport, Isle of Wight, in support of the Bill,—and, for an unflinching adherence to ancient institutions, in gratitude for their acknowledged utility and reaped benefits, rather than out of a blind veneration for their antiquity and prescription, that of Mr. Grove Price, the member for Sandwich, in opposition to the measure; speeches that were regarded, both in and out of the house, as affording singularly lucid and elegant summaries of the views and opinions of the antagonist parties, couched in the most manly language,—and which won for the speakers the marked approbation of their respective colleagues. The tory will subscribe with the whig member in denouncing the pseudo-patriotism of a faction, that seeks to cover its designs by an affected attachment to the mere forms and shadows of by-gone days, and by lauding as models for our imitation, certain modes of antique thought and action, which, however suited they were to the times and circumstances that called them forth, would only tend to produce confusion now. Such political antiquaries, like the indifferent frequenters of church and conventicle, the Naamans of their day, who are alike regarded with coldness and suspicion by the regular and the irregular divine, meet with sympathy from neither party in the state. Opposed in opinion as the two great bodies of constitutional whigs and tories are in respect to government, they still contend for one only object—the happiness of their country. That is the goal they assuredly respectively aim to reach, though by different paths: and they will ever unite against such as have nothing but their own aggrandisement in view. The whig therefore will subscribe with the tory member in his determination to be jealous for the interests of the land which gave both birth; and he will bear with him while he anxiously expresses his fears lest meditated changes of system, and a departure from the principles which have secured the great good we possess, should mar those interests.

Mr. Hawkins defended the great question as follows, April 19, 1831.

‘ Sir; As I consider the present motion of the gallant general as the first of a series of somewhat similar measures, whose tendency, whether intentional or not, will be to defeat what may be called the disfranchisement part of the present Bill; and as to all such attempts I am prepared to give the most strenuous opposition in my power,—I shall, perhaps, be sparing the time of the house, if I take this opportunity of stating, once for all, my opinions on this part of the subject, and, as briefly as possible, a few of the reasons which have induced me to consider the Schedules A and B as the most important and most indispensable part of the present measure. I would, most assuredly, sir, not have troubled the house now, had I succeeded in catching your eye on either of the former debates; and even now, were my own interests alone affected by the vote which I am about to give, I should have preferred giving that vote in silence; nor would I have obtruded upon the attention of the house any reasons for the correctness of those opinions, for the sincerity of which such a vote would have been a sufficient guarantee. But, sir, the house will probably think with me, that the sacrifice, even to a great constitutional necessity, of the privileges of those who have intrusted their interests to my

keeping, demands a few words in justification of so painful a duty ; and the more especially so, as in the present instance this sacrifice to them is not rendered less painful to me by any corruption on their part. If I had paid, or was about to pay, directly or indirectly, by myself or by others, a single farthing for the seat I now hold, I might have been expected to reconcile myself without regret to this vote, upon the incontrovertible plea that purchase makes property, and that 'I had a right to do what I liked with my own.' But, sir, as I have no such excuse to offer to my constituents, the smallness of whose numbers is their only fault, I am unable to avail myself of such an application of a new constitutional doctrine, either in excusing myself to them, or in arguing to the house ; yet, though I have no such exquisite reason, I think I have reasons good enough, and some few of them I shall, with the permission of the house, proceed to offer. Of course, sir, I shall avoid, as strictly as possible, all arguments for the mere purpose of proving that of which I am glad to see so many have become convinced since the first introduction of this measure, and of which this house seems, at last, as unanimously convinced as the people—namely, the necessity of some reform ; but one argument there is which I shall notice, inasmuch as the unfairness of its sophistry is only equalled by the constancy of its repetition. I allude to that class of antagonists, who do not venture into the brunt of the battle with a bold and decided opposition to reform, but who always entertain a sincere conviction, at any given period, that the present is not the right moment for the discussion of this question ; and they arrive at such conviction by this ingenious dilemma—when the people are clamorous for reform, they tell us that we ought not to concede such a measure to the demands of popular turbulence ; and when the people are silent, that silence is a proof of indifference—and, therefore, the measure need not be passed. I will readily allow, sir, to these tacticians all the merit which is due for a very skilful disposition of such forces as they possess ; but it is scarcely necessary to remind them, by way of serious answer, that if the turbulence of yesterday was their only reason for refusing reform, the tranquillity of to-day is a conclusive reason for granting it. If, as they themselves say, we sit here to consult the interests rather than the wishes of the people, surely, sir, their patience under misgovernment is no more an excuse for our denial of their rights, than would be their impatience under salutary control a reason for surrendering our own. And this allusion to the wishes of the people reminds me of one other argument of our adversaries, concerning the way in which this measure has been received by the people of England, which I will notice on account of its originality : and at this stage of the debate we should be unreasonable, indeed, if we were not thankful for originality of argument in any shape. If one of his majesty's ministers had told us, as a proof of the merits of this measure, that its appearance had been hailed by reformers of all parties, and all opinions, as the signal for rallying again round that constitution whose regeneration they had abandoned in despair ; if his majesty's ministers had told us how this measure had reconciled to the legislative authority of this house, the friends whom its corruption had disgusted, and the enemies whom its misconduct had exasperated ; we should have found in the petitions laid on this table since the appearance of the Bill, the natural and satisfactory grounds on which such assertions were founded. But who ever expected to hear this fact seriously brought forward, as it has been, as a reason against this Bill ?—'Your measure must be bad, because it is approved by every body'—

* Your sins are great, because they are so small.'

Sir, I have heard much in my childhood of a precept to this effect—that he who begins by attempting to please every body, will probably end by pleasing

nobody; but this is the first time I have heard either a person or a measure abused, upon the express ground that it actually did please every body. Surely, sir, the dearth of argument on that side of the house has induced honourable members, in the desperation of this last struggle for political existence, to snatch up hastily their adversaries' weapons, at the risk of cutting their own fingers. I acknowledge this change of tone in the petitions of the people: and I hail it as a gratifying proof (to those by whom such proof is needed) that the people are not unreasonable—that they will give up as much to the prudence of their rulers as they expect to obtain from their generosity, and will prove, by the example of the present, to those who will not condescend to read the history of the past, how very limited a measure of confidence on the part of a government in the fidelity of its subjects is repaid—with how full a confidence on the part of those subjects in the wisdom and integrity of their rulers.—And now, sir, that I may keep my promise of brevity better than such vows are usually kept, I will omit what I would have said on those inquiries into the primitive form of our representative system, of which we have in former years heard so much; and I will more willingly give up those doctrines of abstract right, so much insisted on by our predecessors in this great cause. I should even be content, for the purposes of this dispute, to assume that our right to our present liberties is a prescriptive right alone: for, by the very same evidence whereby this is proved, I claim the same prescriptive right to occasional necessary reform. If I am referred to the records of history for the title-deeds of our representative system, that same history tells me of alterations in that system, compared with which the present measure dwindles into insignificance. If I am told that the transfer of the elective franchise from Gatton to Birmingham, without judicial procedure, is a violent innovation, I cannot but recollect that, within little more than a century, two independent legislatures have been blotted out from the pages of the constitution, and with them the greater part of the representation whereof they were composed. If I am told that the vested rights of the present constituency are inviolable, I ask (and though so frequently asked before, it has never yet received an attempt at an answer), what has become of the 40s. freeholders of Ireland? Sir, that very Revolution of 1688, which has sometimes been appealed to as the definitive resting-place of our constitutional ark,—as the Sion of our political wandering,—that Revolution which changed the succession to the throne, is surely sufficient precedent for the disfranchisement of a nomination borough. If the success of my own argument were the sole interest I felt in this question, I should willingly risk the event of the controversy on this appeal to historical precedent; but I will not place the cause of the people of England on any such narrow ground of defence. We seek not this reform, as a matter of abstract right, but of practical expediency; we claim it, not as the fruit of historical research, but of historical experience; we ask it, not because it was so in our forefathers' time, but because it would have been so now, had our forefathers lived in ours. Sir, it is not enough to tell us that our borough system is now what it was 200 years ago. It is not enough to tell us, that a system of tyrannical compulsion and corrupt influence, which was in harmony with the violence and fraud of the political warfare of those days,—which was in harmony with the remains of feudal power, and the remembrance of feudal fidelity,—which was suited alike to the selfishness of their political vices, and the sternness of their political virtues,—it is not enough to tell us that such a system is not grown worse, or even that it is considerably improved. If the political struggles of those days were, compared with the polite encounters of our own, the warfare of giants, they displayed the selfishness and tyranny of giant natures; and when the bludgeon was the umpire of popular meetings,

and the axe of legislative assemblies, it was natural and unavoidable that corruption and intimidation should be reckoned the two main pillars of established government and social order, and that political honesty should be identified with blind fidelity to the landlord or the party leader. But now, sir, that the Sunday pamphlet has superseded the bludgeon of the mob; now, that the daily journal has been admitted, by mutual consent, as a fitter arbiter between contending factions than the axe; now that the prim school-master is found a more effective bugbear to political disturbers than the grim headsmen,—it is too much to demand of us the continuance of those means of government, whose worst corruption was unnoticed amidst the greater hideousness of the ends to which they were rendered subservient. Sir, I never contemplate the discussions which have passed on this question, but I feel myself half a convert to the now unfashionable doctrine of the wisdom of our ancestors. I am told that they had, of necessity, less experience, and less wisdom than ourselves. Less experience I admit they had; but that they had less wisdom I almost doubt, when I see that, unlike their descendants, they made, to the best of their ability, a practical application of that experience to the necessities and difficulties which occurred. Were sir Thomas More really to rise from his grave for the purpose of instructing a poet-laureate in political economy, he might well ask us what do we gain by our superior knowledge and accumulated experience, when a few sounding phrases and a few hard names are sufficient to deter us from putting to a practical use the results of that experience and the deductions of that knowledge?

‘So much, sir, for the authority of past generations: now, a few observations addressed to the reflection and the experience of the present. Of course, sir, I shall not be called upon at this day, either in or out of this house, to answer an opponent who seriously pretends ignorance of the measure in which our nomination system works, whatever may be his opinion of the results which it produces. Upon the former of these questions, there is no longer either mystery or disagreement; to the latter I shall briefly address myself. Now, sir, this question of the results of our borough system is a question of fact, and it is a question of fact which the limits of debate preclude us from adducing, as satisfactory and direct testimony; for such testimony would be nothing less than the political history of England for such a period as the disputants should agree in considering a fair criterion. To enter satisfactorily upon such a field of inquiry, is, in this place, manifestly impossible; and to touch upon it by quoting a few isolated examples, is only opening a vast magazine, whence disputants on either side may furnish themselves with a species of light weapon, of equal brightness, but equally indecisive. We have been told, for instance, of the talent habitually introduced into the house through the narrow portal of a close borough; but we have not been told what proportion this talent bore to the aggregate mediocrity, not to say occasional imbecility of such introductions. Honourable members opposite string up their dozen of choice pippins in a golden row, to win our admiration; but we have not been called to notice the bushels of crabs which have sprung from the same stock. And surely, sir, it would not have weakened our opponents’ case, if they had bestowed some pains in showing that this talent had been generally applied to the service of the country, and not of its possessors and their patrons. Napoleon’s servile senate was a collection of the talent, the science, and the experience of France; but we shall hardly refer to that as a pattern of a legislative assembly. And these observations, sir, remind me of what is, after all, the fatal objection to such a system of election; that which is, to my mind, the decisive reason against the existence of even the purest of these boroughs. We have heard much boasting of the independence of our self-

elected legislators ; and if independence is always to be measured by irresponsibility, it is not to be denied that they are most aristocratically independent of that people whose representatives they are so fond of styling themselves. But here, sir, is the fatal taint in the source from whence they spring—here is that illegitimacy of origin which will ever stand in the way of that salutary respect which all rulers, to make their rule effective, should enjoy in the eyes of the people. Legislators they may be—wise and honest legislators, if you please—but representatives they are not, and cannot be. Hereditary members of an elective assembly—peers in the house of Commons—by their presence here, they intercept from the hereditary branch of the legislature, that popular confidence which they cannot enjoy themselves. Sir, there is no one remark which our adversaries are more assiduous in submitting to our attention, than the necessity that a legislative assembly should so far enjoy the confidence of the people, that it should not be obliged to act as the mere momentary index of popular will ; that it should represent the opinions of the community upon an average of years, and be responsible for the ultimate tendency rather than the particular line of its conduct. Sir, in this doctrine I most cordially agree ; and I do, therefore, protest against the continuance of that system of representation, which compels the people to interfere, with a jealous expression of their opinions, on each particular action of this house that does not fall in with their momentary humour ; because they feel, that whether the ultimate results of that action be such as to justify us or not, they, at least, will have no future opportunity of controlling the actors, or of adopting precautions against the repetition or continuance of the action. It is, sir, for these reasons that the press admonishes us by threats instead of advice ; that the manufacturing artisan enrols his name in affiliated societies, instead of subscribing it to petitions ; that the agriculturist winks at, if he does not encourage, the outrages of his labourers, as a circuitous means of lightening those taxes which had disabled him from meeting their demands ; it is, sir, for these reasons that, however our adversaries may persist, with a politic affectation of fear, to transpose the terms,—revolution has been called for when reform was wanted ; it is, sir, to the obstinate continuance of this antiquated corruption, that we owe those periodical outbreaks of popular discontent which, since the first French revolution, have kept that people, and among them the greatest intellect of the age, in a state of wonder at the continued existence of a constitution, which only throws off its peccant humours by this system of chronic convulsions ; it is, sir,—to use the language of common life,—it is because I am obliged to secure, not by force, but at least by an understood readiness to apply it, the good conduct towards me of that man to whom I can offer no other motives ; it is because a very little knowledge of human nature would make the most careless disposition unwilling to trust for a moment out of sight, that man who has any power in his possession, but of whose character I do not approve, and over whose actions I have no control. But, sir, as I said before, it is quite impossible to prove general misconduct, or general merit, by any number of particular instances which the limits of debate will permit us to quote : there is but one indisputable criterion to which we can appeal in this place ; and that criterion must be sought by each individual, among the results of his own observation and his own experience without these walls. That criterion of legislative capacity is the general effect produced upon public opinion by the conduct of such a legislation ; a slow, silent, continuous effect—visible, indeed, through the whole of its insidious progress, to those whose business it is to watch the signs of the times—the gathering thunder-cloud of a summer's day, unheeded by less attentive observers ; until the first audible mutterings of its wrath, and, un-

noticed by the multitude in general, until it bursts in storm and desolation on the land. This is that unerring criterion, to which rulers have never yet appealed until the eleventh hour ; this is that indisputable sign of the times, which governments never deign to notice, until they can no longer close their eyes to the lightning, nor their ears to the thunder. There is, indeed, on this question of fact—on this question of the good or bad results of our present system—one argument which I shall suggest to the house—an application of the old argument from cause to effect.

What, sir, is the plain state of the case now before this court? Here are two parties : one affirming the good effects of our nomination system ; the other, at least equally numerous, and if not more disinterested, at least placed in circumstances which throw less suspicion over their testimony, affirming, with as bold an appeal to experience, the bad effects of the same system ! So far, sir, the testimony in favour of us is, at least, of equal value with that in favour of our adversaries ; but what will be said when these very adversaries join most cordially with us in their character of the system which produces these much-disputed effects? Why, sir, these very trumpeters of this house—these champions of our motley franchise—allow that they are astonished, when they contemplate the apparently inadequate causes which produce these vaunted results ; they allow that they cannot explain by what miracle of our politico-moral nature such purity is engendered of such corruption. We infer the existence of bad effects from bad causes. Our adversaries join with us in our character of the causes, but infer therefrom nothing but good effects. Thus much, sir, for those who, abandoning the machinery of our representative system as untenable ground, take up their position in defence of its results. But there is another, and no less numerous class, who, giving up both machinery and results as equally indefensible—who, acknowledging that they see here no exception to the old rule of ‘like causes produce like effects,’ demur, nevertheless, to any proposal for amending the system, from an apprehension of danger, whose magnitude, in their eyes, is perhaps to be explained upon the old principle of *omne ignotum pro mirifico* ; inasmuch as they have never yet been able exactly to specify what that danger is. The sole difference between them and us is—shall the decayed parts of the system be mended or not? Both are agreed how much the system wants mending, but one party is unwilling to begin so perilous a job. Both are agreed that it is in rags and tatters ; but whenever we begin to thread the darning-needle, they exclaim, ‘Leave it alone, in the name of prudence—in the name of caution—in the name of Robespierre and Danton : it is so rotten, that if you attempt to put a stitch in, the whole will fall to pieces.’ I will not stop, sir, to remind such objectors what manner of compliment they are paying to the old garment which has served their turn so long, and for which they profess such a veneration ; but do they not see the inevitable inference which the political renovators would draw from this admission? Would not the answer be ready and irreplicable? If the state of the garment be such as you avow, then it is high time to get a new one. And is not this, sir, the dilemma in which the obstinate refusal of all the moderate and timely amendments has, for some time, placed us? Have we not been told by a loud, if not a strong party, that the legislature of England is incorrigible?—that it is too rotten to be patched up—and that it is high time to get a new one? And to whom do we owe this, but to those who passed by every opportunity for a timely reform, with an impudent denial of the existence of any blemish ; and who now, when such denial is no longer possible, think to evade the results of their own obstinacy, by an affectation of sudden discovery that such blemishes have gone too far—have spread themselves too universally through the system, to leave any part where a repair may be commenced,

without danger of pulling the whole to pieces? And these, sir, are the self-elected champions of our monarchical government! And these are the best grounds on which they would risk its defence! Sir, I am not of their opinion. I have better thoughts of that monarchy of England, which has withstood far more serious renovation than this. I have better thoughts of those institutions, which our ancestors feared not to reform and repair whenever they saw need so to do. I tremble not at their exposure to the ordeal of public opinion: through that ordeal they were never yet passed, but they came out with equal beauty and with renovated purity; from those struggles which have exuded the superfluous flesh, the bone derives its strength, and the sinews their elasticity. What these apprehensions of danger are it is in vain for us to ask. Our opponents have, on this subject, contented themselves with vague generalities; nor have they even condescended to place before us any intelligible picture of those phantoms which exercise so powerful an influence over their own imaginations. We cannot, of course, be expected to combat those forces which will not take the field. We can only ask what danger there will henceforth exist which does not exist now? What supports the monarchy and peerage, now, but public opinion? and how can that support be weakened, when we have enlisted public opinion in their favour by granting that reform which, of all others, public opinion is now most loudly demanding? We have been told, indeed, that the house of Peers could not exist without the support which it derives from its nominees in this assembly. But, sir, were we to grant this, we should immediately ask, what supports this assembly? If the house of peers is thrown back upon the house of commons, on what does the house of commons rely? After all the discussions of the theoretical, and the intrigues of the practical statesman, we come ultimately, and, in the last resort, to public opinion, as the tortoise which is to carry the elephant, which carries the ministerial world; and, however we may consult our distaste for unpalatable remedies—however we may think to avoid the bitter necessity of physic, by attributing our strength to the disease of which we are dying—however we may flatter our imagined dignity by a vaunted independence of popular opinion—it is that popular opinion which is our best staff of support, though we will continue to insult it by clinging to a broken reed. This topic, sir, reminds me of Mr. Canning, and which is thus briefly summed up in his own words:—‘If you reform the house of commons on the ground of past misconduct, what will you do with the house of lords?’ Now, sir, this objection to reform in general, is shortly and conclusively answered by a reference to that part of the Bill which is now the subject of discussion. In the schedules A and B is written that which we intend to do with the house of lords. We intend to deprive them of that corrupt and unconstitutional influence which they have exercised in this house; we intend to confine them to their own court; we wish in future that either house should be what it is intended to be, a court of perpetual appeal from the decisions of the other, instead of that monstrous anomaly which they now offer to the world, of two courts, designed to control each other, but ruled in a great measure by the same judges, and controlled by a mutual influence. One complaint has been made against the particular part of the measure now under discussion, which comes with a peculiarly bad grace from those by whom it is put forth: we are told of the anomalies both as regards population and property, which will still defeat our representative system,—as if those anomalies could be put for one instant in comparison with those which now exist,—and as if those very persons would not be the most vociferous in scouting such a reform as would be necessary to sweep away all anomalies whatever. Another complaint that I will notice is one, not directed against the measure itself, but against those who introduced it; and

this complaint I approach with some diffidence of my own constitutional knowledge. Sir, I must confess (and I shall be thankful for correction if wrong), I must confess that I was not aware, until the late debates on this question, that the appeal of a British king from his parliament to his people was an unconstitutional measure. I had thought that both the theory and practice of our constitution had decided, that a parliament at issue with its constituents on a great constitutional question, might, by no unprecedented exercise of the royal prerogative, be sent back to those constituents, if not for further instruction, at least for further proofs of confidence.

And now, sir, before I sit down, one word concerning that people of England, to whose hopes and wishes his majesty's ministers must not even allude in this house, without danger of being taunted from the opposite bench, with an appeal to their physical force! I, sir, shall put forth, myself, no vaunting defiance of that giant power which now sleeps a faithful servant at our feet—that power which never yet put forth its strength but in our defence,—and against which, if once it turn in madness on its master, no defiance will avail. If, as a legislator, I am called upon to forget that the people have hands, as an Englishman I cannot forget that they have hearts; and, at all times, indeed, but more especially in times like these, I do think those hearts worth the winning, even at the price of my own power. We have been accused of attempting, by a threat of revolution, to intimidate those very opponents, whose favourite argument against this Bill—whose staff of reliance, if I may judge from their cheers—is their own fear of revolution as the ultimate consequence. Why, sir,—threat for threat—upon our joint showing of the case, the question would only be, which way led soonest and straightest to revolution. They do not defend acknowledged iniquities of the present system upon any other grounds than those of general expediency; they acknowledge the occasional personal, and constant moral corruption inflicted by our present nomination system; but it is the only way, forsooth, of keeping things quiet; the only way of saving the monarchy, the peerage, and the church. Why, sir, may we not entertain the same fears as our adversaries? Why are they to be allowed to allege their own prospective cowardice as a reason against that measure, in favour of which we must not state our present apprehensions? Sir, I am not afraid of a revolution in either case. I am not afraid of that physical violence, against which, if we were not protected by the good sense of the people of England, the bigotry of their self-elected rulers would be but as a broken reed. But I do think that we shall give no small confirmation of that charge of legislative incapacity which is now ringing in our ears, if we neglect to repair our house while it is still summer, because the winter hurricane is not yet upon the horizon. It is because we can retreat with dignity that I wish to retreat now: I wish to exchange that suspicious safety—which we owe to the good sense rather than to the good wishes of the people, to the remembrance rather than to the continuance of former affection, to the habit rather than to the feelings of past fidelity,—I wish to exchange that suspicious safety, for the holiday security of a people's love. There be some few, I know, in all political parties, who care neither for a people's love, nor have faith in a people's gratitude; whose best political virtue is a proud consistency in wrong, and whose highest moral courage is an unreflecting security. Where, indeed, was ever seen a fabric of time-worn political privilege tottering to its fall, the majority of whose possessors have not displayed the same idiotic security, amid the ruin which every one else foresaw? I will not detain the house by quoting proofs of that melancholy truth, of which political history is but one long example;—I will go no further back than to the early days of many whom I now address, and ask,—was it the firmness of real, or the madness of fancied security, when

the Court of Versailles drove the representatives of popular opinion to swear in a tennis court their own inviolability and the regeneration of France? Or was it the firmness of real or the madness of fancied security when, as it were but yesterday, the breathless herald of approaching insurrection was ordered to wait on the threshold of St. Cloud—

Donec Borbonico libeat vigilare tyranno.

What price, not the people of France alone, but all civilized Europe were compelled to pay for chaining that first madness, is now matter of history; what price, not France alone, but all civilized Europe, are about to pay for chaining this second madness, I dare not trust myself to prophesy; but I appeal to all impartial observers of past and passing events, who have witnessed the reluctance with which that mighty people commenced the struggles for which they have paid so much, to say whether that people would not have repaid, with a rich return of confidence and love, the voluntary sacrifice of antiquated power, worthless and defenceless though it was. That such gratitude would have been felt by the people of France for such sacrifice, I do most sincerely believe; that such gratitude will be felt by the people of England for far less painful sacrifices, I do most unhesitatingly affirm; and the more gratitude, inasmuch as such sacrifices on our part are not yet inculcated by the presence of that other fearful alternative. For the honour of this ancient monarchy, whose perils and whose triumphs for so many generations are chronicled in the proceedings of this house—for the sake of this faithful people who have stood by us in the hour of our trial, and borne with us in the hour of our pride,—let us seize the opportunity which now presents itself, to inscribe ourselves on the page of history as the first recorded example of ‘power correcting its own usurpation!’

Mr. Grove Price, on the evening of April 21st, opposed the Bill in the following words: ‘It is with a feeling of regret and indignation, sir, that I have heard the honourable and learned gentleman who has just sat down (Dr. Lushington), charge this house with being incapable of discharging its public duties, and, indeed, of being so corrupt, as to render it impossible for any minister who is an honest man, to carry on the business of the country, unless its constitution be changed. Let me be permitted to remind the honourable and learned gentleman, that the very house of commons which he so stigmatizes, is that which placed him and his political associates in office. It is, therefore, a little too hard—a little too ungrateful, to charge such a house of commons with want of honesty and intelligence. But to proceed to the purpose for which I have risen to address the house. I now address it possibly—I may even say probably—for the last time. (Many honourable members here cried Hear! hear!) I thank the honourable members opposite for that taunting cheer. I thank them for their willingness to get rid of a member who is unconnected with party, and whose sole object is to consult the real interests of the empire. I shall long recollect the cheer so courteously and so civilly given me by the honourable and learned gentleman; but whenever it comes across my mind, I shall also recollect the very different cheer which I received but a few days ago, when I presented myself to my constituents, to give an account of my vote upon this Bill. Yes, I have received no less than five votes of thanks from different bodies of my constituents; and I believe I may say, that those votes came from a majority, for they came from more than a thousand of my constituents. Whether I remain in parliament, or retire again into private life, I shall always have the gratification of contrasting the cheer which I have received from the honourable and learned gentleman, with that which I have received on a recent occasion from my simple, but honest and loyal-hearted constituents.

Allow me to touch on a subject different from that which I expected to have heard discussed this evening; and as I did not commence the irregularity, allow me to follow other speakers into that irregularity which they have introduced. Various assertions have been thrown out in the course of the discussion, and much has been said upon the state of France, and upon the three glorious days, as they are called, of July. Glorious, indeed!—when the result is an unsettled monarchy, a disunited government, a wretched anarchy, a maddening race after popularity among persons who are now the sport of military despots, and now the sport of popular factions. Let me ask the honourable and learned member for Waterford, who has spoken of the ordinances of his late majesty of France as the cause of the recent French revolution, whether he recollects the statement which has been made on that subject by M. Mauguin, the leader of the republican faction, against the present government? To borrow a phrase from the language of that faction, ‘the trophies of Waterloo do not suffer the sons of France to sleep.’ And M. Mauguin has candidly avowed that it is not the ordinances of Charles X., but the hostility which the people of France feel against that particular branch of the house of Bourbon, of which he was the head, that has induced them to rise and to hurl him from his throne. Now what was the cause of the émeute of these three glorious days? A conspiracy, which had been for years carried on with all the disaffected spirits of the world, and which at last burst into open day, because the conspirators had found a pretext, but not a cause, for insurrection. But to return. For seven days I took the liberty of endeavouring to catch your eye, sir, with the view of addressing you upon the subject which is now under discussion. I was unsuccessful; and as this is the last time that I may ever have the honour of addressing you, I trust I shall be allowed to say a few words upon the question of reform. It is said that this parliament is now on the eve of dissolution, because it would not accede to the Reform Bill. Now, there was once another parliament dissolved under much the same plea, and the epitaph inscribed on its grave was—‘This parliament was dissolved for its independence, because it would not consent to sacrifice the constitution.’ A similar epitaph will, I think, be a fit memorial for the present parliament. For my own part, I care not when a dissolution may take place. The personal inconvenience—the mental anxiety, to a man in infirm health,—the pecuniary expense attendant on such a measure,—are not, of course, matters of indifference; but I should have felt myself disgraced for ever, if, with a threat of dissolution before me, and with a knowledge of the consequences which might result from it to myself individually, I could shrink from the expression of the opinions which I honestly and conscientiously entertain upon this important question. To use the eloquent language of Burke, ‘I entered into this house with the intention of adding my small mite of service to that side of the constitution which needs it.’ Serious and awful indeed is the position in which the empire stands at this moment. He who looks behind him at history, must glean from his experience of the past, that there is much in the present to discourage and alarm him. The future is covered with clouds and darkness, and there are signs of storm and tempest in the gloom of the political horizon—

*Venit summa dies et ineluctabile tempus
Dardanise.*

We are now standing in the eleventh hour of the constitution. The honourable member may laugh; but I tell him in sober sadness, that if this Bill of Reform should be passed into a law, a greater revolution would be made in the constitution of this great empire, than would be made even by a change in the dynasty. A dynasty might be altered, and the constitution

preserved. Indeed, in this country the dynasty has been altered, and still the constitution has been preserved. But if we proceeded to alter, as is now proposed, the equipoise of the three branches of the constitution, by adding fresh power to the popular branch of it, we shall never be able to recover the means of rectifying the balance. The legislature may cure a particular evil; it may even repair an injury which it has itself created; like the fabled spear of Achilles, the same instrument which gave the wound may also cure it; but I appeal to my learned friends who are conversant with history, and I ask them whether they have ever, in the course of their reading, met a single instance in which, when popular power has been once secured to the people, the people have come forward to limit it? Kings, from satiety, from disappointment, from a conviction of its vanity, have been known to resign power: but in popular bodies there is a succession of men of ambition, and energy, and talent, who keep alive the cupidity of the people, and thus it happens that popular power once acquired is never abandoned. During the last six weeks I have heard many attacks made on the close boroughs and on the boroughmongers. I have heard the assertion repeated, till I am nauseated with the repetition of it, that the close boroughs are the disgraceful parts of the British constitution. I have heard much of declamation on the point, I have also heard much of argument; I have likewise heard much which I scarcely could have expected to hear uttered by men who profess to understand the laws and constitution of their country. We have been told, over and over again, in the language of lord Bacon, 'Time is the greatest innovator.' True; but what has been the nature of the innovation in this particular instance? Let any man look at the history of England for the last century and a half, and he will see that the house of commons has, during all that time, been regularly increasing in power, by a gentle and gradual, but constant and active impulse. For the last fifty years, power has flowed into it with a rapid tide; and the reason of it is evident, for England is a great and flourishing commercial country. Will any man in this house be bold enough to rise and tell me, that in a country where a commercial spirit exists, the democratic spirit will not inevitably increase? The concurrent testimony of all ages proves, that in all democracies the commercial spirit rapidly increases, and the agricultural or aristocratical spirit proportionably declines. What is the reason of it? Must I call the attention of honourable members to the first records of society? Why have commercial societies always become republican communities? Because all persons engaged in commerce are wrapped up in their private views—because they are accustomed to pay no regard to rank, fortune, or hereditary station—and because, when they have once rendered themselves independent, they consider themselves on a footing of equality with all around them. Before the house proceeds to pass this Bill, there is one previous reform which it ought to make. It must divest man of his jealousy, of his hatred of authority, of all his dislike to all who are above him; and then, when it has made man into an angel, but not till then, it may grant this reform. But I have been told, that the house of commons is not, as it ought to be, predominant in the constitution. Indeed! Cannot one angry vote of this house, by stopping the supplies, put an end to the aristocracy and the crown together? What has De Lolme said on this point? Has he not compared the crown to a three-decker, which lies magnificently upon the waters, with its yards manned, and streamers flying, but which is incapable of rolling its volleyed thunders over the deep, until it has received its stores and ammunition from some other quarter? What is that other quarter but the people? What, too, I would ask, is the house of lords? A body inferior to ourselves in wealth and power. Is it, in its constitution, aristocratical or

democratical? I heard a noble lord say, on a former evening, that there is a more popular feeling in the house of lords than there is in the house of commons; and that the reason was, that the heirs of great families, having imbedded themselves with liberal notions and popular feelings, in order to make a display of their abilities in the house of commons, carry their liberal notions and popular feelings along with them to the other house of parliament, when the lapse of time gives them a seat there. Is the house of lords, then, purely aristocratical? Is the crown perfectly independent? If the house of lords is neither purely aristocratical, nor the king perfectly independent, ought the house of commons, on its part, to be purely democratical? It is necessary that, in the third branch of the legislature, which is the most powerful of all, there should be some counterbalancing check upon its own power. Here let me observe, that this was remarked as one of the most curious characteristics of our constitution, more than eighty years ago, by that philosophical historian, Mr. Hume. Mr. Hume observes, in one of his essays, that Tacitus, the great master of Roman science and knowledge, declared, that in any government which consisted of three powers,—such as the monarchical, the aristocratical, and the democratical,—the balance could not long be preserved; for the power which was predominant would aggrandise itself at the expense of the two others—and the result of such aggrandisement would be the destruction of the whole. How happens it then, says Mr. Hume, that the prediction of Tacitus has proved incorrect with regard to the British constitution? He solves the question by stating, that it is owing to the peers having, in the house of commons, an interest and influence, which preserves their counterpoise in the constitution. If that interest and that influence must be preserved, how can it be effected, except by the existence of those nomination boroughs, on which so many fruitless witticisms, so many unmeaning sarcasms, so many idle jests, have been vented. It is because I wish to see the house of commons preserve its due influence,—because I wish to see the house of lords in possession of its proper privileges,—and because I wish to see the crown not independent of, but connected with, the two other branches of the legislature in one harmonious link,—that I will never consent to create that preponderance in the house of commons, by which the mace on that table would be converted into the imperial sceptre. If, then, the influence of the house of commons is to be preserved within its legitimate limits, it can only be done by means of those nomination boroughs, which act like ballast to the vessel of the state; and, in spite of the obloquy to which such a declaration may expose me, I will now declare, that I would as soon disfranchise a large town as one of these boroughs, supposing that I were convinced that the existence of that borough was necessary to the equipoise of the constitution in this house. I wish to see the spirit of democracy in this house, but I do not wish to see it predominant. I wish to see all classes of my fellow-subjects represented in it; but I will never give my voice to such a scheme of representation, as would render it necessary for me, when the vessel is overladen on one side, to throw my feeble mite of service to the other, to prevent it from upsetting. If this Reform Bill should pass into a law, we shall hereafter have in this house two classes of representatives, consisting, not as now, of men of moderate fortunes, but either of men of immense fortunes, or of men who are the mere panders to the people's voice. I am neither a man of immense fortune, nor a pander to the popular voice. Men of the middling class would disappear from the house, and I should disappear along with them. But, let me tell you, that the school of subserviency to a large body of uninformed individuals is a bad school for any representative of the people. It teaches him to play fast and loose with the truth, and to utter sentiments

which are not sincere. If adopted, therefore, I should view the proposed measure of reform as the extinction of the British constitution—of that constitution under which we have so long flourished, great, and glorious, and free—of that constitution which has produced men of the loftiest virtue, the most exalted patriotism, and the most gigantic talent, capable of vieing with the proudest names which either Greece or Rome, or any other nation, could produce—of that constitution to which, disfigured as it is by close boroughs, the eyes of all friends of liberty, in all countries of the world, are turned with admiration and delight—of that constitution which Montesquieu has praised, because he looked with a philosophic eye upon it—not in its separate parts, but in its entire and undivided whole. He who looks at the British constitution, not as a whole, but in parts, resembles the fly, described, I think, by Addison, which, perched on one of the pillars of St. Paul's, was able, with its microscopic eye, to distinguish the small excrescences of the piece of granite on which it stood, but could form no idea of the harmony, the proportion, and the magnificence of the whole structure. Supposing, however, that we should get, by this Reform Bill, an independent house of commons, with the two other branches of the legislature dependent on it, what would there be to which the country could trust? To its moderation?—ridiculous. Has not Mr. Fox, the Gamaliel at whose feet the honourable gentlemen opposite have been brought up, said that in a reformed parliament, the crown and aristocracy would be cherished and protected? Cherished and protected indeed! But how near is protection to dependence? In a popular assembly the influence of violent men is always certain to prevail. History holds forth its awful record for our perusal, and tells us that there are four circumstances, which, in all times and in all countries, prove that aristocracy and democracy cannot exist together. Does any man doubt the fact? Then let him review the chief circumstances in our history, from the year 1628, when the Petition of Right was first signed, to the year 1688, when the Bill of Rights was passed, and finally secured to us. The cause of the struggle which distracted the country during that long series of years was, that the king had a prerogative which was powerless, and none of that influence which the monarch now has. The first point which the popular party carried, enabled them to tear a little of the bark from the tree, but did not enable them to pull down the oak. But bolder men came on the stage; and Cromwell succeeded them, just as bolder men will now succeed the noble lord opposite. I tell the noble lord that there are men already prepared to cast him aside, and to carry his plans much further than he does, and to cast his moderation, if moderation it can be called, to the winds of Heaven. In this country Fairfax found a Cromwell to succeed him; and in France, Lafayette found a Mirabeau and a Robespierre; and the noble lord, respectable as he is for his rank, and talent, and private virtues, will find that, when he has once placed himself in the career of revolution, he will be hurried, with an accelerated velocity, which it will be impossible to check, into its abyss.

— *facilis descensus Avernæ:* *

* * *
Sed revocare gradum, superasque evadere ad auras—
Huc opus, hic labor est.

His new associates would use the noble lord as their instrument. It is because I wish to preserve the order to which the noble lord belongs, that I struggle to prevent its dissolution by the preponderance of the other branches of the state. If the melancholy reflection which I have suggested, should ever hereafter occur to the mind of the noble lord, not with the contempt with which he may now be inclined to treat it, but with a sad and

fatal conviction of the truth, let me caution him to reflect that there was one man, in the middle classes of society, who advised him, when the British constitution was at stake, not to trifle with it. The measure which the noble lord is now introducing, is the same in principle with that which laid the foundation for the destruction of the monarchy in 1642. It is the same in principle with that which Cromwell tried in 1654, but which was found in practice so democratical, as to compel him to dissolve the parliament which it had called into existence, lest it should strip him of the power he had so tyrannically usurped. This topic naturally leads me to the consideration of an argument I have heard advanced by my honourable friend, if he will allow me to call him so, from old recollections at Cambridge,—the member for Westminster,—who said, that this act of Cromwell was a most excellent and admirable act; and yet what was its result? Its democratical principle was so strong, that that bold, and adroit, and powerful usurper could not control the parliament which was convened under it, but was obliged to dismiss it, because it wished to take from his hands the sword by which he swayed the destinies of England. Then, again, the French revolution is a repertory of facts, calculated to overturn every argument that can be advanced in favour of this Bill; for the French revolution was, if ever event was, the triumph of the democratical principle. Did the authors of the French revolution perform their parts with moderation? On that side, at least, they never sinned. Again, too, in Spain, what has been the case? There the Cortes were all-powerful, and the King was nothing. There is an observation so apposite to this subject, which Mr. Burke has borrowed from lord Bolingbroke, that I cannot refrain from pressing it on the consideration of the house. It is to this effect:—‘Those, who are preparing to build up a government, should recollect that the kingly power ought to form the basis, and the popular power the superstructure; for if you place a republic as the basis, and afterwards build a monarchy upon it, your building will fall into ruins on the slightest shock.’ These are the last words which I may utter with my tongue in this house. I therefore implore honourable gentlemen to consider that there is no security for this house, except in the equipoise of the three branches of the constitution. I recollect well, that, when that great and virtuous statesman, Mr. Burke, took his leave of this house, which he had so long enlightened and adorned, he implored the mighty leaders of the two parties which then divided the country, that, whether they walked together as friends, or crossed each other’s path as angry meteors, they would preserve the British constitution inviolate, and save that ark, which he had not dared to touch, from the profanation of sacrilegious hands. I repeat that prayer at this moment; I implore the noble lord opposite to abandon this bill at once and for ever. The democracy which it tends to establish is, indeed, a democracy royal; but it is a crown which will only be permitted to rest on the brow of the monarch, until a fitting opportunity come for wicked men to throw it aside. Then will follow confusion, civil war, and some powerful chief, who, when men’s minds shall have been satiated with troubles, will establish a military despotism. Economy is now the order of the day; but if we ought to be economists of any thing, we ought to be economists of evil. We ought to pause long before we give our assent to measures, which I cannot characterize better than in the words of an ancient writer:—‘*Speciosa verbis, re inania aut subdola—quantoque majore libertatis imagine tegebantur, tanto eruptura ad infensius servitium.*’

The ‘people’ answered the ministers’ appeal, by returning members favourable to reform, in greater numbers than even the warmest friends of the measure had anticipated; and the slow but sure progress of the Bill through the

new house of commons, terminated by the sending up of the measure to the lords, September 22, 1831. The upper house, however, rejected it on the second reading, by a majority of forty-one; a division which produced no small excitement out of parliament, and riots took place in consequence at Derby, Nottingham, and Bristol. In the last-named city, the recorder, sir Charles Wetherell, who had conscientiously opposed the Bill in his place in parliament, was assaulted violently by the mob; and the insurgents then plundered and set fire to all the public buildings. Lord Ebrington's prompt motion in the lower house, upon the rejection by the lords, whereby a pledge was given by the commons to support the ministry in their measure, kept the metropolis from disturbance; and, to place the Bill in the same favourable state it had recently enjoyed, parliament was convened for the third time within the year, the measure was carried in the commons, as before, on the second reading, and the houses were then adjourned to the beginning of 1832. Much anxiety was now entertained for the issue of these proceedings, a collision between lords and commons being that which all who prayed for the peace of their country would labour to avert; and this feeling was augmented among the quiet classes in the nation, when, on the reassembling of the houses in 1832, the Bill, after being carried steadily through its remaining stages in the commons, was once more brought into the house of peers. Several, who had before opposed it, now voted in its favour, trusting that it would be greatly modified 'in committee;' and by the aid of these 'waverers,' as they were denominated, the first stage was accomplished, in the upper house, by a majority of nine. The advantage gained, however, was trivial, since the greater number of those who had thus 'waived,' had agreed to oppose the most important clauses; and, by their especial exertions, a motion for 'instruction' to the committee on the Bill was carried by a majority of thirty-five, whereby all control over the measure was virtually taken out of the hands of the parties who had propounded it. In utter despair at the crisis, lord Grey suggested an inundation of the upper house by a creation of new peers; but king William wisely refusing to accede to that extreme resort, his lordship and colleagues tendered their resignation. His majesty applied thereupon to the duke of Wellington, to resume office as leader of a new administration; and his grace attempted the task, under circumstances yet more difficult than he had encountered when he commenced clearing the Peninsula of its Gallic oppressors. With the larger portion of the commons, and the trading and lower classes of the community against him, he found it utterly impossible to comply with the royal command; and relinquishing the commission, lord Grey returned to office, and instantly began a compromise with the opponents of the Bill. It was at length proposed and settled, that no new peers should be created, but that the great leaders of the tory party in the lords should secede from the house until the measure had passed; and the heads of opposition having accordingly withdrawn for a time, the Bill was carried through its remaining stages, received the royal assent on the 7th of June, 1832, and became, without further question, the law of the land.

During the conflict concerning the passing of the Reform Bill, the country was visited by a natural scourge. The Asiatic cholera, conveyed first into Scotland from the East by a ship's crew, at length spread its fearful contagion into every nook and corner of the British island; and while thousands were, in every town, thus hurrying to the tomb, a *run*, as it is termed, upon the Bank of England (consequent upon the loss of credit sustained by the nation through the political excitement that had so long prevailed), occasioned, in the course of three days, the drawing out of above 1,000,000*l.* sterling from its coffers. At the same juncture, Holland (having dissented from the arrangement which had separated Belgium from the government of the Nether-

lands, and constituted it an independent kingdom), was invaded by the French, the allies of the Belgians; and the citadel of Antwerp being invested, the Dutch garrison was at length forced to capitulate, and the Dutch sovereign compelled to a peace.—(See *Siege of Antwerp*.)

In November, 1832, closed, unsuccessfully to the heroine who originated it, the Vendéan insurrection to place the son of the assassinated duc de Berri on the throne of France (see *Duchess de Berri*); and a republican riot, which began at the funeral of general Lamarque in Paris, in like manner failed to produce a change of dynasty in that kingdom. The contest between the Portuguese brothers, dom Pedro and dom Miguel, for the sovereignty of the state, which endured from 1831 to 1834, is recorded in the history of Portugal; while the invasion of Syria by Mehemet Ali, the rebellious pacha of Egypt, will be found sketched in the Turkish and Egyptian reigns. The superior discipline of the Turko-Egyptian troops rendered their victories almost matter of play; and the pacha's son and general, Ibrahim, would have bearded his lord and master the sultan in Constantinople, had not that monarch obtained the aid of his country's natural foes, the Russians, who sent an armament just in time to save him from the degradation.

By the provisions of the Reform Bill, the parliament was to be dissolved as soon as conveniently could be arranged after the passing of the measure; and accordingly a fresh election took place in January, 1833. The ministry obtained very large majorities throughout Great Britain; but in Ireland a new party, pledged to support a repeal of the Union, threatened to bar the plans intended to be proposed for the consideration of the first reformed assembly. When the houses met, nearly the earliest discussion was concerning the agrarian disturbances in the sister country; and a Bill, attempting to check the political agitation by which these tumults were grievously aggravated, passed the lords accordingly, but met with a resistance in the commons, that compelled the abandonment of some of its most stringent clauses. A reform of the Irish church was the next measure to the 'Irish Coercion Bill,' as the former was called; and by this the ministry purposed so considerable a change in the tithe system, that the friends of the church in its integrity resolutely contended in parliament for the claims of the establishment in their full efficiency. While the moderate class of reformers proposed, that when provision had been made for what they were pleased to call 'all necessary uses' in ecclesiastical matters, the surplus should be applied to national education, the ultra party boldly pointed out church property as the legitimate fund to be pillaged to supply the necessities of the state,—just as in days of yore, the accumulations of the Jews were, in all European countries, considered the natural property of needy and avaricious monarchs. The ministry, however, steered a middle course, and neither gratified nor satisfied either party. They abolished ten of the Irish sees, and abandoned the clause for applying the surplus revenues to purposes not purely ecclesiastical, that they might not hinder the passage of the Bill through the lords; and they gave a salvo to the Irish clergy, by obtaining for them the loan of a million sterling, in lieu of the arrears of tithes which they were unable to gather in. The cause of the last-named inability must be looked for in the divided religious faith of the Emerald Isle. We have before shown that the great mass of the Irish people are of the Romish church; and having been encouraged by the factious of their own priesthood (who, in this respect, are an exception to all other catholic clergy), as well as by designing agitators, to refuse contribution to the protestant church of the country, every popular disturbance of the last century in Ireland has been found connected more or less with the tithe question. The renewal of the charter of the Bank of England, by the same parliament, elicited some important remarks and explanations concerning the

condition and system of the public finances; and upon a like renewal of that of the East India company, a considerable change was made in the constitution of that establishment. The company was secured in its political rights over the vast empire it had constructed in Hindustan, but was deprived of its exclusive privileges of commerce; and accordingly, the trade with both India and China was freely thrown open to all the subjects of the British crown, 1833. In the West India colonies negro slavery was at length totally abolished, by the stipulations of former acts of parliament, 1834; the negro's service being converted into a compulsory apprenticeship for a limited period, and a compensation of 20,000,000*l.* sterling being awarded to the devoted proprietors. In spite of the frequent solicitations and prayers made to their masters by multitudes of the so emancipated slaves, whose condition in very many instances had been far more secure and enviable than that of free-born servants—furnished as they were, in return for their labour, with comfortable homes, both they and their children being well clothed (as far as they needed), bountifully fed, and daily instructed in the truths of religion, and in the laws of morality—and all care and anxiety about living removed from them, being thus rendered ever cheerful, even to merriment—in spite of their prayers to remain protected beings as heretofore, they were forced to begin a mode of life wholly opposed to their inclinations and habits, in numerous instances so destructive of their health, as to bring them speedily to the grave, and in many more so ruinous to their morals, that men, hitherto noted for being laborious, peaceful, and contented beings, became, on a sudden, idle, dissolute, and, eventually, restless and actually rebellious malcontents.

In America, the provinces of the United States were at this juncture in collision, respecting a tariff sanctioned by congress, which imposed heavy duties on all imported manufactures; and the Carolinas were so markedly in opposition to the supreme government, that a recourse to arms was for some weeks expected. A compromise was, after much discussion and vituperation, effected; but it is clear that a breach, probably irreparable, has been made, and that at no distant day a portion of 'the land of freedom' will assume, in contra-distinction from the other divisions, a monarchical form of rule. The American president (Jackson), from an antipathy to the banking system, injudiciously withdrew the public money from the Bank of the United States; and, as we might imagine would be the result were our own government so to act in the case of the Bank of England, a most violent shock was instantly given to commercial credit throughout the States, which did not fail to be sympathised in by that *stomach* of the world's commercial system, Great Britain. To this hour the effects of the incautious act are felt on both sides of the Atlantic. In the same year commenced the succession-war in Spain, occasioned by king Ferdinand's infringement of the salique law, as elsewhere shown.

The first session of the first reformed parliament was scarcely brought to a close, ere it was discovered by an impatient people that very little had emanated from a change, which the fancies of an ever-expectant commonalty had considered the natural precursor of a political millennium. Vast dissatisfaction was expressed at the small diminution of taxation; the continuance of the corn laws was an awful bar to the ascendancy of the manufacturing over the agricultural interests; the impressment of seamen proved Britons to be still little removed from their barbarian state in Cæsar's time; and military flogging yet exhibited that bloodthirstiness of character in the government, which had made the eighth Henry, and all his Tudor descendants, terrible. To add to these popular sentiments of uneasiness, the cabinet was alleged to be considerably divided on more than one important question. The Irish agitators, meanwhile, had strengthened the anti-union league; and, upon

meeting after the first recess, Mr. O'Connell introduced the subject in the commons, but was defeated by a majority of 562. The greater portion of the crown ministers having however displayed a disposition to appropriate the surplus ecclesiastical revenues to secular purposes of general utility, the duke of Richmond, earl of Ripon, and sir James Graham, retired from the cabinet; but the parties who supplied their places by no means rendered the Irish Tithe Bill palatable to the lords, and it was happily rejected by that house. A further change was produced by differences concerning the Irish Coercion Bill, and lords Grey and Althorp soon after resigned; upon which lord Melbourne was appointed premier, still in the whig interest, and lord Althorp returned to office under him. These squabbles in the cabinet necessarily impeded the progress of legislation: and no important measure was adopted in the session, save a reform of the poor laws, 1834.

So little harmony still existed among the members of the government, and so much umbrage was taken at certain speeches emanating from the lord chancellor during a tour in Scotland, that, when lord Althorp, through the decease of earl Spencer, had been compelled to vacate his post of chancellor of the exchequer, his majesty took the opportunity of dismissing the Melbourne administration. The duke of Wellington took the head of the cabinet until the arrival from the continent, of the new premier, sir Robert Peel; but when a new election took place, consequent on the mutation, in February 1835, the Irish members in the radical interest were found so strong, owing to an affray at Rathcormuck with the tithe-collectors, which had dreadfully exasperated the lower order of catholics, that the new ministers were beaten at the very outset, in the choice of a speaker. Mr. Abercromby, the opposition candidate, was chosen in preference to the tried ministerial one, sir Charles Manners Sutton; and when lord John Russell had carried his proposition 'that any measure introduced regarding Irish tithes, should be founded on the principle of appropriating the surplus revenue to secular purposes of general utility,' sir Robert and his colleagues once more resigned, and the Melbourne ministry was restored, all save the lord chancellor, whose high post was filled by lord Cottenham. A bill for the reform of all English municipal corporations, consequent on the report of commissioners appointed to investigate the condition of those bodies, and another for regulating dissenters' marriages, were the only important measures carried after this ministerial change, until the next session. In the interval, Canadian affairs became important, through the preposterous demands of the descendants of the French in that colony; demands which the British government necessarily resisted, and subsequently silenced by the sword, as elsewhere shown.

The course of policy necessary to be pursued for the peace of Ireland, involving of course the great question of tithes, again placed lords and commons in opposition, 1836. It was carried by a majority in the latter, that the Irish corporations should undergo the same cleansing process as the English had done in the preceding session; but the lords declared municipal bodies to be altogether unsuited to the social state of Ireland, and even proposed the abolition of such as already existed therein. An amendment to the latter effect being put by the house of lords, the commons rejected it, and the bill for municipal reform was lost; as was soon after the Irish Tithe Bill, by the lords' refusal to assent to the appropriation clause. Bills, however, for the commutation of tithe in England, for the registration of births, marriages, and deaths, and for the better arrangement of episcopal sees, whereby translation might be henceforth avoided, passed into laws, after a little concession had been made in either house. In the last session under king William, 1837, no measure of any moment was carried, if we except

the adoption of resolutions for administering the government of Lower Canada, where the turbulent descendants of the French are located, in opposition to its refractory house of assembly. The lords and commons were often in violent collision, especially on Irish and English ecclesiastical matters, there being, from the change in the representation, so large a body of dissenters from the established church in the lower house; but the good sense of all denominations and grades, in and out of parliament, operated to preserve, as we fervently trust it ever may, that just balance of power, by the maintenance of which Great Britain is, with the blessing of a gracious Providence, what she is, and if magistrates do their duty—(we mean not the judges of the land, who, from their acquaintance with the law, cannot easily err—but the provincial justices, on whose decrees the *comfort* of the people so mainly depends: if magistrates, therefore, interpret the laws, rather in the spirit, than by the letter—clothing Justice with the robe of Equity, and not showing her naked, fierce, and inexorable—displaying no partiality on any plea, however apparently virtuous—never supporting the individual's unjust cause, on the ground that the class to which the applicant belongs is an injured one—and engraving on the tablet of their heart '*summum jus, summa injuria*'—) what she ever will be—the freest, most enlightened, and happiest nation on the earth. King William's health began suddenly to decline in the spring of 1837; and on the 20th of June in that year he expired, at the age of 72, sincerely regretted by every portion of his subjects. His remains were interred near those of his royal father and brothers, in St. George's chapel, Windsor.

EVENTS.

RICK-BURNING, 1830.—The mode adopted by the large party employed in this truly un-English practice, to render the ignition certain, has never been fully ascertained. It is presumed that each incendiary was provided with an apparatus by which he threw into the stack of wheat or hay, from a distance, some combustible substance; as ricks were usually found on fire at all points simultaneously, although guards had been over them to prevent the approach of characters likely to act so injuriously.

STEAM COACHES FIRST USED, 1830, on occasion of opening the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. The distance between the two towns is thirty-three miles, and is accomplished in an hour and three quarters. The saving to the Manchester manufacturers, in the carriage of cotton alone on this railway, is said to be 20,000*l.* per annum.

It is by no means unlikely that railroads, constructing rapidly as they now are in the leading countries of Europe, will change the art of war, but there is some consolation

in reflecting that they are more likely to produce peace than hostilities. Mutual communication has been in every age the grand instrument of civilization: the distinctive customs, manners, and prejudices of each state, are necessarily rendered homogeneous by frequent and easy intercourse: and when men are brought to think and act alike, there will be less danger, we may hope, of violent collisions. Sixty millions of capital have been proposed hitherto for investment in rail-roads in England; but parliament has only yet sanctioned the use of half that amount. With respect to the rate at which steam-coaches may go with safety on railroads, thirty miles was at first believed to be the maximum. Beyond this, even to fifty-six miles, it is possible to go in calm weather; but the wind, and even the unmoved air, will always become a powerful obstacle to any much greater acceleration. Wheels of seven feet diameter have been found more productive of speed than when larger. Among the benefits likely to arise

from the adoption of steam-coaches, is the smaller demand for horses, and the consequent throwing of grass-land into arable, for corn, &c.; and whereas it now requires twelve stage-coaches (carrying fifteen passengers each) and 1200 horses, to take 180 people 240 miles in twenty-four hours, at the rate of ten miles an hour, one locomotive steam-engine will take that number double the distance in the same time, and will consequently do the work of 2400 horses. It would need thirty mail-coaches, six passengers each, and 3000 horses, to take 100 people 240 miles in twenty-four hours, at ten miles the hour; while one engine would take the same number and take two trips in the time, and so do the work of 6000 horses! The annihilation of the posting system is the main injury done to society by that of railroads, and no one can deny his sympathy with the case of the postmasters. All too must acknowledge the superior poetry of travelling like a gentleman in a postchaise, instead of running, like a rat in a drain, through the tunnel of a railroad. We feel the loss of the scenery by the roadside, and of all those pleasures of imagination which flow from the moving panorama of churches 'embosomed high mid tufted trees,' the stately park, the sheltered farm, the rural cottage. But we have lived too long to indulge the hope of uniting inconsistent enjoyments; and looking to the necessities of trade and manufactures, in a country so dependent on their prosperity as England, we must be content, for the sake of the profits, to behold occasionally all the repelling images and objects of trade—aware that, if we want the solid benefits of large sales, and quick returns—no loss of time, and as little loss as possible of money—we must make up our minds to railroads, without inns, or coaches, or horses, or stations, or rubicund Bonifaces, or smart and smiling chambermaids. We admit, however, that the monopoly which the new system in-

volves, will require the remedy of two consequent evils. When horsed coaches come wholly to be disused, something must be done to prevent railroad proprietors from charging what they please for transit; and again, the turnpike tolls necessarily ceasing, the repair of the common roads will have to be provided for by other means. The vast investment of capital, too, in railroads, is to be regarded with anxiety; for if the ground be the bank which allows most interest, we are quite certain that plough-shares, *not railway-shares*, are the shares which give the surest dividends.

EXTENSION OF JUDICIAL COURTS, 1830, when an act passed to include the Welsh counties, and the county palatine of Chester (which had hitherto been independent of the superior courts at Westminster), within the jurisdiction of the Westminster courts. The circuits were thereupon increased from six to eight; additional judges being appointed to the superior courts. North and South Wales were the new circuits. In addition to these ordinary assizes, a third assize for the trial of criminals was established, 1823, for the counties around the metropolis; Surrey, Sussex, Kent, Essex, and Hertford. In London and Middlesex the administration of justice is regulated by peculiar customs and acts of parliament. (See vol. i., p. 523.)

RISE OF HYDROPATHY, 1830. Vincent Priessnitz, the son of a small farmer at Gräfenberg, in Silesia, was knocked down by a horse, while a youth, at work on the farm in 1832, and the cart, passing over his body, broke two of his ribs. According to Vincent's own statement, 'a surgeon from Freiwalden, on being called in, declared that he never could be so cured as to be fit for work again.' Having always possessed great presence of mind, and an unusual degree of firmness, the young Priessnitz, not much pleased with the prognostication of the doctor, and being somewhat acquainted already with the

treatment of trifling wounds by the means of cold water, determined to endeavour the cure of his ribs. To effect this, his first care was to replace the ribs; and this he did by placing his abdomen with all his force against a table or a chair, and holding his breath, so as to swell out his chest. This painful operation was attended with the success he expected. The ribs being thus replaced, he applied wet cloths to the parts affected, drank plentifully of water, ate sparingly, and remained in perfect repose. In ten days he was able to go out; and at the end of a year he was again at his occupation in the fields. The fame of the youth's extraordinary cure, soon spread around the neighbourhood, and brought patients, begging his assistance and advice. He shortly became so famous, that the envy of the medical practitioners was awakened; and they denounced him to the authorities at Vienna as a dangerous empiric, whose quackery should be stopped by the arm of the law. It was alleged that the sponges and wet cloths which Priessnitz employed in the ablution of his patients, were medicated with drugs more potent than pure spring water. Upon this denunciation, Aulic inspectors came to Gräfenberg to investigate, the sponges were decomposed, but nothing either worse or better than water was detected in their contents. After a searching examination, the commission appointed by the Austrian government to inquire, found that the only agents employed by Priessnitz in effecting his cures, were cold water, air, and exercise; and so convinced were the members of the benefits derived from his system, and of its perfect safety to patients in the most advanced stages of disease, that, on their report, the most jealous government in Europe allowed Priessnitz to continue his operations. Those who came to punish, remained to praise; and since that time, the hydropathist has been honoured by the friendship of many members of the

imperial family, and by distinguished individuals from every quarter of the continent. In England, the name of Priessnitz was never heard of until 1841. In that year Mr. Claridge, a martyr to rheumatism, repaired to Gräfenberg, and published the following account of the hydropathic, or as some style it, the hydrotherapeutic, treatment, to which he was subjected. 'Having at last made up my mind to become one of Priessnitz's patients, I was prepared for his coming in the morning. The first thing that he did was to request me to strip and go into the large cold bath, where I remained two or three minutes. On coming out, he gave me instructions, which I pursued daily as follows. At four o'clock in the morning, my servant, coming to my bed, folded me in a large blanket, over which he placed as many things as I could conveniently bear, so that no external air could penetrate. After perspiration had commenced, it was allowed to continue for an hour; he then brought a pair of straw shoes, wound the blanket close about my body, and in this state of perspiration, I descended to a large cold bath, in which I remained three minutes, then dressed, and walked until breakfast,—which was composed of milk, bread, butter, and strawberries (the wild strawberry in this country grows in abundance, from the latter end of May until late in October). At ten o'clock I proceeded to the douche, under which I remained four minutes; returned home, and took a sitz and foot-bath, each for fifteen minutes; dined at one o'clock. At four proceeded again to the douche; at seven repeated the sitz and foot-baths; retired to bed at half-past nine, previously having my feet and legs bound up in cold wet bandages. I continued this treatment for three months, and during that time walked about 1000 miles. Whilst thus subjected to the treatment, I enjoyed more robust health than I had ever done before; the only visible effect that I expe-

rienced, was an eruption on both my legs, but which, on account of the bandages, produced no pain. It is to these bandages, the perspirations, and the baths, that I am indebted for the total departure of my rheumatism.' The above is but one specimen of the many modes of hydro-pathic treatment. Dr. Behrend, an eminent Berlin physician, who took the trouble to journey to Gräfenberg, that he might be an eye-witness of proceedings there, thus writes, 1841. 'The new method of applying cold water in the cure of most diseases, internally and externally, was discovered by a peasant named Priessnitz, a man endowed with superior intelligence, and extraordinary penetration. It has been in use for eight years, with the consent of the Austrian government, at Gräfenberg, a village in Austrian Silesia. The number of patients of all ranks of society during this year, was more than 1500, (not including fifty doctors). The village of Gräfenberg is already changed into a small town. The great success which Priessnitz has obtained, and still obtains every day, does not depend upon the quality or composition of the water, which is pure spring water, but on the new manner in which it is administered. Establishments have been already formed of the same nature at Breslaw, Brunswick, Dresden, Gotha, Bavaria, Cassell, &c.; there are two at Berlin, and a friend of mine is on the point of establishing one in some town or village of Belgium. After having seen such extraordinary success obtained by this hydropathic method—after having examined, without prejudice, the persons returning cured from Gräfenberg, many of whom were connexions of my own, I went there with two other professional men, in order to see with our own eyes. We stayed there six weeks, strictly examining the peasant Priessnitz's method. Practitioner as I am of fifteen years' standing, and editor for six years of a medical journal, I was at first a little mistrustful of this

novelty, and likened it to many others, whose authors pretended to reform the medical arts, and yet have completely vanished. That which I beheld at Gräfenberg, struck me, as it will you, with astonishment. I have seen asthmas and pleurisies completely cured in three or four days by cold water only. I have seen an old intermittent fever cured, without quinine, or any other remedy than cold water. I have seen measles, scarlatina, small-pox, nervous fevers, rheumatism, scrofula, hernia, tracheitis, or complaints of the throat, gout, ringworm, syphilis, tic-douloureux, and other nervous diseases, tumours in the glands, swelling of the heart, liver, and all effects of mercury, cured by simple cold water, without the aid of any other remedy whatever—and in a comparatively shorter time, and in a more favourable manner for the constitution, than have ever been attained by any other means. Cold water is administered internally and externally; but the method of application is varied according to the individual and the case. Cold water serves sometimes as a revulsive, and sometimes as a depressive agent; and in all these cases, the efficacy of water is so clearly manifested, that to doubt is impossible.' All this sounds marvellous and incredible enough to English ears—laughably contrasting as it does with the notions of a people possessed of a sort of natural hydrophobia. John Bull will take a long time to believe cold pure spring water *can* be a medicine; though he is in the habit of tacitly owning it to be such, by seldom tasting it but with horror. But to return to Herr Priessnitz. The Silesian peasant is said to be singularly sagacious in detecting the seat of disease; and his honesty seems equal to his skill. He does not pretend to the possession of a panacea; he at once tells a patient whether he can cure him or not; and he frequently rejects applications. Neither does he profess to restore the powers of nature, if ex-

tinguished by disease, or by a long course of irregular living. He says he can heal all curable powers, and refresh powers impaired to a degree which many physicians would pronounce desperate.

Certainly we must bear in mind that the illustrious Hippocrates, most deservedly styled the 'Father of Medicine,' prescribed cold water for the treatment of the most serious affections. Celsus and Galen recommended its use in both sickness and health; the Spartans strung their nerves by a daily bath in the Eurotas; the illustrious poet, Pindar, opened an ode with the grand burst, 'Ariston men hudor!'—and, among the Romans, the current proverb '*Nec degere nec natare didicet*,' shows how habitual was the use of water with them. Even the semi-barbaric Moslems of our own day, estimate beyond price the value of daily ablutions. Indigestion is but little known among the Turks; and yet no people on earth do more to induce it. On one day a Turk will dine on cucumber and cheese; the next he will gorge himself from a dozen greasy dishes; for three months together he will be twelve hours a day on horseback; and for the ensuing three months he will perhaps scarcely stir from his sofa. And yet it is rare to meet a dyspeptic Turk. With such habits, how can we account for this fact? We attribute the Turks' exemption from ailments of the digestive organs, to the daily ablution which the law of Mohammed enjoins.

We must, in conclusion, assert our firm persuasion, that the 'clodhopper' Priessnitz has struck into the veritable road to the temple of Hygeia; such mythic temple being the place to which, not patients, but the convalescent gratefully resorted. We do not, at the same time, go the lengths of continental enthusiasts on the subject: we do not believe, what Priessnitz solemnly asserts, namely, that all drugs are deleterious, that mineral waters are the ministers of death, that physic is a fallacy, and

that all physicians are fools; that, therefore, as far as our own country is concerned, Apothecaries' Hall must consent to have Romeo's apothecary for its president, and Harrowgate cease to arrogate virtue to its springs any longer. We only think that men, in constant forgetfulness of the wisdom of reflecting deeply on the works of Providence, which alone can lead to a discernment of the *designs* of Providence, do not bear in mind that the Almighty Creator could not have assigned to man the one only beverage which, in his wisdom, He has assigned—water—for *nothing*. We speak of water—spring-water, in its pure, unadulterated state, unmingled with the juice of the vine and of the hop, and unscathed, as to its vital properties, by distillation; and we also mean water that has partaken of the natural change, occasioned by its passage, in the bowels of the earth, through substances which, to a certain degree, alter its principles, and produce what we call 'mineral water,'—a change also not intended for nothing. While keeping in our recollection that Priessnitz is an uneducated, and therefore in the main a prejudice-led man, and that he displays his ignorance of (we will not say his ingratitude for, since ignorance is his plea) the gifts of God to man in the poppy plant, and all other plants, in the mineral mercury, and all other minerals, when skilfully employed as medicines, we will still admit that he is a distinguished person, for his ability to call back our attention to the importance of the still greater gift of WATER, through the relief brought, in eight short years, to 7000 persons labouring under the most complicated forms of acute and chronic disease, by his '*cold water cure*.'

EXPULSION OF THE DUKE OF BRUNSWICK, 1830.—Duke Charles William Ferdinand, who fell at Jena, 1806, had four sons, the youngest of whom, Frederick William, would have succeeded him, but for the tyranny of Napoleon, who made Brunswick a

portion of his brother's kingdom of Westphalia. Duke Frederick married, 1804, the princess Mary of Baden, by whom he had two sons, the princes Charles and William. Irritated at the escape of their gallant father, 1809, Napoleon planned to carry them off from Baden, where the duke had left them; but his scheme failing, they were conveyed to their parent in England, and educated there. That brave prince fell, as has been shown, at Quatre Bras, 1815; and his sons being minors, the prince regent of England, their uncle, administered the affairs of the state, as guardian for prince Charles, until his coming to the age of nineteen, October 30, 1823. The young duke, like his father, looked with jealousy on the changes which circumstances had effected in the government; and upon his refusal to acknowledge the new legislative chambers, 1830, the Brunswickers appealed to the diet of the empire, and symptoms of distrust displayed themselves on all sides. At length the duke ordered cannon to be placed in different parts of the city, as if to guard against a meditated attack upon the government; and on the evening of the day in which this measure was adopted, his highness was pelted by the mob, in returning from the theatre. A vast multitude assembled in the night about the palace, demanding that the cannon should be removed, the chambers acknowledged, and that the duke should not go to England, as he had intended. All these demands were complied with; but, on the morrow, the magistrates found the military had been intimidated by the mob, and, soon after, a multitude of the commonalty burst into the palace to seize the duke. His highness hereupon threw himself amongst a party of his hussars, and escaped to the frontiers; and the mob, being foiled in their object, set fire to the venerable edifice. The chambers soon after placed the duke's brother, William, in the sovereignty; and the choice was ratified both by the diet, and by William

IV. of England. One arrangement, however, attendant upon the deposition of duke Charles, was calculated to form a dangerous precedent, and to affect the law of succession in all other European states: it was, that even the issue of the expatriated prince should be excluded from the throne of Brunswick; a measure for which it would be difficult to find satisfactory legal principles. By a constitutional act, passed in 1832, Brunswick is a limited monarchy, with the right of succession to females, upon the failure of male heirs. The legislature is composed of the duke, an upper chamber of bishops and owners of equestrian estates, and a lower chamber of bishops also and deputies of towns.

BREAKING OUT OF THE ASIATIC CHOLERA, 1831. After ravaging India for two years, the pestilence so called spread over the European continent, and was imported by shipping into Musselburg, in Scotland, 1831. Mr. Moir, a surgeon of that place (author of the poetical contributions signed Delta, in Blackwood's Magazine), soon determined that the affection was highly contagious, although numerous subsequent cases in England seemed to prove the contrary. It is sufficient here to say, that many of the victims of this disorder were, from a state of high health, brought, in less than twenty-four hours, to the grave. The author himself saw a farmer who, in good health and joyous spirits, was leaning on his gate on the one day, before the same period on the next in his coffin; and also a young woman, who, in apparent health, attended divine service at church on the afternoon of Sunday, before eight on the succeeding morning a corpse. In a word, the affection was one so terrible, as to seem to *begin* where other diseases *end—in death*; though (strange to those not philosophers) to record, there were people who looked on the existence of the awful malady as a delusion, and the mere invention of the faculty—one radical member of

the house of commons even designating it as 'the cholera humbug.' The term cholera was applied to this manifest pestilence, because the prevailing distress was in the stomach and bowels; but the Asiatic cholera, and what is designated cholera-morbus, are diseases totally opposed in character. The exhaustion in both is perhaps occasioned by the irritability, or increased or inverted action of the digestive functions; but in the Asiatic, or malignant cholera, the blood is, previously to death, materially affected. Hence the blue appearance of persons who died of the latter, although such post-mortem exhibitions are commonly the result of the sudden departure of the vital principle. But there were cases in which the patient in cholera, before any other symptom of infection displayed itself, observed his fingers to assume a leaden hue. Such as were predisposed by temperament, or any peculiar state of body, received the disorder, which appears the utmost that can be alleged as respects its contagious nature; and there is no exaggeration in asserting the amount of deaths by it to have exceeded 100,000 in England, in two years. The terms *infectious* and *contagious* are here used one for the other, although strictly speaking, contagion applies to the touch of the sick person, and infection to atmospheric influence.

BRISTOL RIOTS, 1831.—In April of this year, sir Charles Wetherell, in consequence of his having opposed the reform question in his seat in parliament, had been annoyed by the mob during his Spring visit to Bristol, as Recorder; but on his attendance again in that city, October 29th, the popular feeling broke out into open violence. The military were called in, and a person was killed. The magistrates, however, although the mansion-house had been forced by the rabble, would not sanction the use of fire-arms against the insurgents; and they even allowed the regiment that had opposed the mob, to be withdrawn at the suggestion of

its weak commander, colonel Brereton, from the beleaguered city. At length both gaoles were fired, after the prisoners had been released; and in the night of the 30th, the mansion-house, the bishop's palace, and fifty other buildings, shared the same fate. On the 31st, the citizens, who had been hitherto paralyzed, joined a few dragoons, and completely overcame the now intoxicated rioters. Of these, eighty-one were soon after convicted, after a patient investigation, and punished in various ways; and courts-martial were held on colonel Brereton, commander of the district, and on captain Warrington, who acted under him. The former committed suicide during the investigation; and the captain was cashiered, with liberty to sell his commission. The mayor, Mr. Pinney, and other magistrates, were brought to trial also, but acquitted, on the ground that the citizens had refused to confide in them. But surely there need have been no dispute about confidence in a riot which was, at the onset, the mere freak of some fifty rabble, and those mostly boys, but which, like the flame from the unheeded spark, was left to get a-head, until it assumed the usual all-destructive character. The only surprise to the nation was that Bristol was not eventually both disfranchised and deprived of its municipal privileges, by the legislature, as a warning to British cities in general to be prompt in suppressing the first symptoms of rebellion.

'Continuū culpam ferro compece, prius-
quā
Dira per incautum serpent contagia vulgus.'

The escape of the Recorder from the furious mob that assailed him when on the bench, was with difficulty accomplished; and had he not consented to disguise himself in female apparel, and pass over the roof of the mansion-house to other buildings, his life would, in all probability, have fallen a sacrifice. Colonel Brereton, it was universally believed, erred solely from false feelings of huma-

nity. He could not endure to shed blood, even when the call of duty made it imperatively needful; forgetting that the lenity of a soldier towards the guilty rabble of a place, has all the effect of a designed cruelty and severity towards the innocent citizens.

SEPARATION OF BELGIUM FROM HOLLAND, 1831.—On this occasion, Leopold I., of Saxe Coburg, was styled, in the revolutionary spirit of the day (which regards the people as the only legitimate source of power), king, not of Belgium, but *of the Belgians*. Buonaparte, in this way, (little as he allowed the French people to use the like style to himself, with any real gain to themselves at his expense,) was fond of talking of George III. as ‘king of the English;’ by which he pretended to mean, that he was only ruler of England by the permission or sufferance of his subjects, and might therefore be dethroned at their pleasure.

REFORM OF THE GAME LAWS, 1831.—These laws are the relic of the ancient English forest-laws, under which the slaughter of one of the king's deer was equally penal with killing one of his subjects. By degrees the right over wild animals was shared with the king by his barons, and at length with the king and barons by the landed proprietors in general; and up to the present day the game-laws have decided what birds or beasts should be esteemed *feræ naturæ*, or game; have prohibited all persons, not duly qualified by birth or estate, from killing any of such creatures, and even from having them in their possession as articles of food; and have inflicted severe punishments and penalties upon the offenders against their provisions. There can be no doubt that, during the active operation of the game-laws, profligate habits amongst the peasantry were induced, violence was committed, and misery of the most dreadful description was caused by the temptations to contravene them; and the legislature, seeing the matter in this light,

passed acts in 1831, by which the whole of the former provisions respecting qualification by estate or birth were removed. Any person, therefore, obtaining a certificate, is now enabled to kill game, either upon his own land, or on the land of any other person with his permission. The sale of game is, under certain restrictions, legalized; and game being recognised as an article of traffic, the statute very properly provides some more summary means, than those previously in force, for protecting it from trespasses. Poaching in the night-time is punishable by imprisonment for the two first offences, and by transportation for the third; the term *game* is declared to include hares, pheasants, partridges, grouse, heath or moor-game, black-game, and bustards; and the periods during which the different species of game may not be killed, are their respective breeding and rearing seasons.

RISE OF THE MORMONITES.—Joseph Smith, an American fanatic, pretending to be favoured by visions, founded, 1831, in Missouri, ‘the church of the Mormonites, or Latter-day Saints.’ In two years the number of his followers considerably increased; upon which the other inhabitants of the state took up arms against him, and a sanguinary civil war raged for the next five years. The sectaries have now spread to Illinois, where they have founded three towns, the chief called Nauvoo, a name which they, in their ignorance, state to be of Hebrew origin; while they affirm their written scriptures (‘the books of Enos, Jarom, Zeniff, Ether,’ &c.), to be translations from ‘the modern Egyptian.’ These impostors affirm the needle's polarity to have been known to the ancient Jews; and they state that the mariner's compass is alluded to in the New Testament (with the original language of which they are of course well acquainted), because St. Paul (p. 361) says, ‘we fetched a compass, and came to Rhegium.’ The revelations of Smith were to convince the world

'that all the religious denominations now existing, are believing in erroneous doctrines;' nevertheless, 'that Jesus is the Christ, the eternal God, manifesting himself to all nations.' His first vision was in a grove, near his father's house; where he sought the Divine aid in prayer, to show him which of all the rival claimants was the true church. He at length saw a very bright and glorious light in the heavens, which gradually descended towards him; and, as it drew nearer, it increased in magnitude, so that by the time it reached the tops of the trees, the whole wilderness around was illuminated in a most splendid manner. Into this 'cloud of glory' Smith was received; and he met within it two angelic personages, who informed him that all his sins were forgiven, and that the 'fulness of the gospel' should at some future time be made known to him.

As the ignorance of the Mormonites (a mere assumed name to excite inquiry, derived perhaps from 'the modern Egyptian,') is a delightful satire on the boasted march of intellect of the nineteenth century, so is the cause of the fanatical Smith's prayer a biting jeer at the 'split faith' of the present day; when, instead of one church in unity, creeds multiply with the increasing population of countries, and the members of Christ's only church are become, by their silly differences, as a rope of sand. But Smith's fanatical proceedings, carried out as the cunning impostor's principles have hitherto been by the sword, his only means of securing the lucre of his knavery, are but an offset of the ultra-methodist doings across the Atlantic. The 'love-feasts' and 'revivals' of these outrageous disciples of Wesley, are too shocking, in the main, for description; but the following picture of a midnight meeting of the usual actors in such disgraceful scenes, from the pen of a lady who was an eye-witness, is drawn with a delicacy that permits our presentation of it to the reader. It must be premised that the assem-

bly of these deluding and deluded persons was held in the dead of the night, on a piece of ground 'religiously' denuded of its trees, in the midst of a vast forest in Illinois, the fanatics pitching their tents like a camp.

'At midnight a horn sounded through the camp, which we were told was to call the people from private to public worship; and we presently saw them flocking from all sides to the front of the preachers' stand. Mrs. B. and I contrived to place ourselves with our backs supported against the lower part of this structure; and we were thus enabled to witness the scene which followed, without personal danger. There were about 2000 persons assembled. One of the preachers began in a low nasal tone, and, like all other methodists, assured us of the enormous depravity of man, as he comes from the hands of his maker, and of his perfect sanctification by grace, after he had wrestled sufficiently with the Lord to get hold of him. The admiration of the crowd was evinced by almost constant cries of 'Amen! amen! Jesus! Jesus! Glory! glory!' and the like; but this comparative tranquillity did not last long. The preacher told them that this night was the time fixed upon for anxious sinners to wrestle with the Lord; that he and his brethren were at hand to help them; and that such as needed their help, were to come forward into *the pen*. The pen was the place immediately before the preachers' stand: we were, therefore, placed on the edge of it, and were enabled to see, and hear all that took place in the very centre of this extraordinary exhibition.

'The crowd fell back at mention of the pen, and for some minutes there was a vacant space before us. The preachers came down from their stand, and placed themselves in the midst of the space, beginning to sing a hymn that called upon the penitents to come forth. As they sang, they kept turning themselves round

to every part of the crowd, and by degrees the voices of the whole multitude joined in chorus. This was the only moment at which I perceived any thing like the solemn and beautiful effect which I had heard ascribed to this woodland worship. It is certain that the combined voices of such a multitude, heard at dead of night, from the depths of their eternal forests, the many fair young faces turned upward, and looking paler and lovelier as they met the moonbeams, the dark figures of the officials in the middle of the circle, the lurid glare thrown by the altar-fires on the woods beyond, did altogether produce a fine and solemn effect, that I shall not easily forget; but ere I had well enjoyed it, the scene changed, and sublimity gave place to horror and disgust. The exhortation nearly resembled that which I had heard at 'the Revival,' but the result was very different; for, instead of the few hysterical women who had distinguished themselves on that occasion, above a hundred persons, nearly all females, came forward, uttering howlings and groans, so terrible, that I shall never cease to shudder when I recall them. They appeared to drag each other forward, and on the word being given, 'Let us pray,' they all fell on their knees; but this posture was soon changed for others that permitted greater scope for the convulsive movements of their limbs; and they were soon all lying on the ground, in an indescribable confusion of heads and legs. They threw about their limbs with such incessant and violent motion, that I was every instant expecting some serious accident to occur. But how am I to describe the sounds that proceeded from this strange mass of human beings? I know no words which can convey an idea of it. Hysterical sobbings, convulsive groans, shrieks and screams the most appalling, burst forth on all sides. I felt sick with horror. As if their hoarse and overstrained voices failed to make noise enough, they soon began to clap their hands vio-

lently. The scene described by Dante was before me:—

*'Quivi sospiri, pianti, ed alti guai
Risonavan per l'aere—'*

*Orribili faville
Parole di dolore, accenti d'ira,
Voci alti e fioche, e suon di man con elle.'*

Many of these wretched creatures were beautiful young females. The preachers moved about among them, at once exciting and soothing their agonies. I heard the muttered 'Sister! dear sister!' I saw the insidious lips approach the cheeks of the unhappy girls; I heard the murmured confessions of the poor victims; and I watched their tormentors, breathing into their ears consolations that tinged the pale cheek with red. Had I been a man, I am sure I should have been guilty of some rash act of interference; nor do I believe that such a scene could have been acted in the presence of Englishmen, without instant punishment being inflicted; not to mention the salutary discipline of the tread-mill, which, beyond all question, would, in England, have been applied to check so turbulent and so vicious a scene.

PASSING OF THE REFORM BILL, 1832.—In the first year of the reign of king William IV., an act was passed to prevent bribery and corruption in the election of representatives for the borough of East Retford. It recites that there had been the most notorious, long-continued, and general corruption in the election of burgesses for that town; and enacts, that it shall be lawful for every freeholder of the hundred of Bassettlaw, who has a freehold of the clear yearly value of forty shillings, to give his vote at every election of burgesses for it; the right of election thenceforth to remain in the freeholders of the hundred, joined with the persons who, by the custom and usage of the borough, had or should thereafter have a right to vote at such election, except certain persons made freemen by redemption. As we shall, at the close of this work, trace with brevity the history of parliamentary representation in England, from the ear

liest period of the assembling of the Wittenagemotte of the Saxons, to the plenitude of power and privilege enjoyed by the house of commons at the present time,—it now only remains to introduce a few outlines of that momentous measure of parliamentary reform, which was accomplished in the third year of the reign of king William IV. After a lengthened period of extreme excitement, and after numerous protracted and angry debates, with which every observer of the proceedings of parliament is sufficiently acquainted, a bill, entitled ‘An Act to amend the Representation of the People in England and Wales,’ was passed into a law, and received the royal assent on June 7, 1832. The main principles of this bill have been appropriately described as those of disfranchisement and enfranchisement—the former having relation to certain boroughs of minor importance, and the latter extending the privilege to certain large towns and districts—increasing also the number of knights for many of the shires, by dividing them for the electoral purposes. The boroughs which have been totally disfranchised are fifty-six:—viz. Aldborough or Aldeburgh, Suffolk; Aldborough, Yorks; Amersham, Bucks; Appleby, Westmoreland; Great Bedwin, Wilts; Beer-Alston, Devon; Bishop’s Castle, Salop; Bletchingley, Surrey; Boroughbridge, Yorks; Bos-siney, Cornwall; Brackley, Northamptonshire; Bramber, Sussex; Callington, Cornwall; Camelford, Cornwall; Castle-Rising, Norfolk; Corfe-Castle, Dorset; Downton, Wilts; Dunwich, Suffolk; Fowey, Cornwall; Gatton, Surrey; St. Germans, Cornwall; East Grinstead, Sussex; Haslemere, Surrey; Hedon, Yorks; Heytesbury, Wilts; Higham-Ferrers, Northamptonshire; Hindon, Wilts; Ilchester, Somerset; East Looc, Cornwall; West Looc, Cornwall; Lostwithiel, Cornwall; Ludgershall, Wilts; St. Mawes, Cornwall; St. Michaels, or Midshall, Cornwall; Milborne-Port, Somerset; Minehead, Somerset;

Newport, Cornwall; Newton, Lancashire; Newtown, Isle of Wight; Oakhampton, Devon; Orford, Suffolk; Plympton, Devon; Queenborough, Kent; New Romney, Kent; Saltash, Cornwall; Old Sarum, Wilts; Seaford, Sussex; Steyning, Sussex; Stockbridge, Hants; Tregoney, Cornwall; Wendover, Bucks; Weobley, Herefordshire; Whitchurch, Hants; Winchelsea, Sussex; Wootton-Basset, Wilts; Yarmouth, Isle of Wight. The boroughs which previously returned two members to parliament, and are now destined by the act to send only one are thirty:—viz. Arundel, Sussex; Ashburton, Devon; Calne, Wilts; Christchurch, Hants; Clitheroe, Lancashire; Dartmouth, Devon; Droitwich, Worcestershire; Eyc, Suffolk; Great Grimbsby, Lincolnshire; Helston, Cornwall; Hors-ham, Sussex; Hythe, Kent; St. Ives, Cornwall; Launceston, Cornwall; Liskeard, Cornwall; Lyme-Regis, Dorset; Malmesbury, Wilts; Midhurst, Sussex; Morpeth, Northumberland; Northallerton, Yorks; Peterstield, Hants; Reigate, Surrey; Rye, Sussex; Shaftesbury, Dorset; Thirsk, Yorks; Wallingford, Berks; Wareham, Dorset; Westbury, Wilts; Wilton, Wilts; Woodstock, Oxon. The newly enfranchised towns and districts in England, which are hence-forward to return two members, are twenty-two:—viz. Birmingham, Warwickshire; Blackburn, Lancashire; Bolton, Lancashire; Bradford, Yorkshire; Brighton, Sussex; Devonport, Devon; Finsbury, Middlesex; Greenwich, Kent; Halifax, Yorkshire; Lambeth, Surrey; Leeds, Yorkshire; Macclesfield, Cheshire; Manchester, Lancashire; Mary-le-bone, Middlesex; Oldham, Lancashire; Sheffield, Yorkshire; Stockport, Cheshire; Stoke-upon-Trent, Staffordshire; Stroud, Gloucestershire; Sunderland, Durham; Tower Hamlets, Middlesex; Wolverhampton, Staffordshire. The newly enfranchised towns in England which are destined to send but one representative to parliament are nineteen, viz. :

Ashton-under-Line, Lancashire ; Bury, Lancashire ; Chatham, Kent ; Cheltenham, Gloucestershire ; Dudley, Worcestershire ; Frome, Somerset ; Gateshead, Durham ; Huddersfield, Yorks ; Kendal, Westmoreland ; Kidderminster, Worcestershire ; Rochdale, Lancashire ; Salford, Lancashire ; South Shields, Durham ; Tynemouth, Northumberland ; Wakefield, Yorks ; Walsall, Staffordshire ; Warrington, Lancashire ; Whitby, Yorks ; Whitehaven, Cumberland. The borough of New Shoreham, in the county of Sussex, is for electoral purposes, to include the whole of the rape of Bramber, except that part comprised within the borough of Horsham ; the borough of Cricklade is to include the hundreds and divisions of Highworth, Cricklade, Staple, Kingsbridge, and Malmesbury, in the county of Wilts, except that part of the last-named which is comprised within the borough of Malmesbury ; the borough of Aylesbury, the three hundreds of Aylesbury, in the county of Buckingham ; that of East Retford the hundred of Bassetlaw, in the county of Nottingham, and all places locally situated within it, or surrounded by its boundary and any part of the counties of Lincoln and York ; that of Penryn, the town of Falmouth ; and that of Sandwich the parishes of Deal and Walmer. The boroughs of Weymouth and Melcombe Regis are to return only two members, instead of four. In Wales, the only newly-created borough which has been empowered to return one representative for itself alone, is that of Merthyr-Tydvil, in the county of Glamorgan ; which, for electoral purposes, includes the parishes of Merthyr-Tydvil and Aberdare. In that county also, the former district of contributory boroughs has been divided into two ; the towns of Swansea, Loughor, Neath, Aberavon, and Kenfig uniting in the return of one member,—and those of Cardiff, Cowbridge, and Llantrissant likewise jointly returning one. In the isle or county

of Anglesey, the towns of Llangenni, Amlwch, and Holyhead, have been enfranchised, and made contributory to Beaumaris ; in the county of Cardigan, the township or lordship of Atpar has been restored ; in that of Carmarthen, the town of Llanelly has been added to the borough of Carmarthen ; in that of Carnarvon the city of Bangor has been annexed to the district of contributory boroughs ; in that of Denbigh, the town of Wrexham ; in that of Flint the city of St. Asaph, and the towns of Holywell and Mold ; in that of Montgomery the towns of Llanidloes, Llanvyllin, and Welsbpool, have been restored to the exercise of the elective franchise, and made contributory to Montgomery, to which also have been joined the newly-created boroughs of Machynlleth and Newtown ; in that of Pembroke, the towns of Narberth and Fishguard have been enfranchised, and annexed to Haverford-west—whilst the newly-created borough of Milford has been added to the district formerly including Pembroke, Teuby, and Wiston ; and in the county of Radnor, the town of Presteign has been joined to the district of contributory boroughs. Yorkshire, instead of four knights, is henceforward to send six, namely, two for each of the three Ridings ; and the county of Lincoln, instead of two, is empowered to send four, i.e., two for the parts of Lindsey, and two for the parts of Kesteven and Holland. Other counties have also been allowed to return four knights of the shire instead of two, and for this purpose have been divided into two portions : they are the counties of Chester, Cornwall, Cumberland, Derby, Devon, Durham, Essex, Gloucester, Hants, Kent, Lancaster, Leicester, Norfolk, Northumberland, Northampton, Nottingham, Salop, Somerset, Stafford, Suffolk, Surrey, Sussex, Warwick, Wilts, and Worcester. The counties which are henceforward to return three knights instead of two, are those of Berks, Buckingham, Cambridge,

Dorset, Hereford, Hertford, and Oxford; and those which are to return two instead of one, are the Welch counties of Carmarthen, Denbigh, and Glamorgan. The act also provides that the Isle of Wight shall be separated from the county of Southampton, and be deemed a county of itself as regards electoral purposes, with the privilege of returning one representative to parliament. With regard to the right of voting for knights of the shire, it is enacted that the franchise be extended to leaseholders for the unexpired residue of any term originally created for a period of not less than sixty years of the clear yearly value of ten pounds at least, or for any term originally for not less than twenty years of the clear yearly value of at least fifty pounds; and to yearly tenants paying a rental of fifty pounds per annum. The franchise in cities and boroughs has been extended to persons occupying premises of the clear yearly value of at least ten pounds; but both these and the voters for counties are subjected to the condition of registering prescribed by the act. No person is entitled to vote in the election of a knight for the shire, by virtue of any property which would otherwise confer upon him the right of voting for any city or borough. All non-resident freemen, except within seven miles, have by this act been disfranchised. Lists of voters, both for counties and boroughs, are periodically to be made out by the respective overseers of the different parishes and townships, and are to be subjected to the revision of certain barristers appointed to make their circuits, and hold courts for that purpose; and their decision is to be final, except that any person whose name may have been omitted in consequence thereof, may tender his vote at the election, which must be entered in the poll-book and distinguished from those admitted and allowed. These preliminary proceedings being settled by the act, the period of taking the votes has been

limited to two days; and for the sake of expediting the poll, the respective counties and electoral divisions have been divided into convenient districts, with a polling-place to each; and the respective cities and boroughs are to be divided into compartments, for the same purpose, at the discretion of the returning officer; thus most materially decreasing the expense to the candidates, by abolishing the necessity of conveying distant voters to the place of election, and lessening the chances of riot, by preventing the tumultuous assemblage of voters at one particular spot. Such are a few of the most important clauses of the Reform Act, in so far as regards parliamentary representation in England and Wales. Those for Ireland and Scotland are based upon the same principles, modified in some respects, so as to adapt them to the peculiar circumstances of the respective countries.

To sum up the amount of change capable of being effected by the Reform Bill would be impossible. It is a prospective measure evidently; and it would be only a waste of time to descant upon the power of first principles. We might as well visit the forges of the Cyclops, and try to estimate the ruin each bolt would bring upon the world, by the shape and dimensions of the missile. We might, while in that smithy, with the same lack of wisdom, endeavour to calculate the amount of relief that would arise to suffering humanity, from the judicious administration of the forked lightning to withered and paralysed limbs, when subdued by daring man to take the form of the electric spark. We may, however, tell the general reader that, among the alterations that were at once made by the measure, the *rotten* boroughs of the kingdom, as they were termed (being places with no other electors than the tenants and subservients of the lord paramount of the soil), were, in the main, annihilated, and that the privileges, so taken from them, of sending members to parliament, were

bestowed on towns which, in the course of years, had risen, by the wealth of the manufacturing class, to importance. In this point of view, the gain was all to the manufacturing, the loss all to the agricultural or landed interest of the country. On the whole, England lost seventy, and Scotland and Ireland gained each five members. Sixty-two small boroughs were extinguished, and a moiety of forty-six larger ones cashiered: the total number disfranchised was 167. The Revolution effected, as its name implies—and a horrible name it always sounds to us, when employed as the conventional designation of a *good*—the greatest mutation which the British constitution had ever experienced prior to that produced by the Reform Bill. *That*, by deciding many important questions in favour of liberty, and, still more, by the great precedent it established of deposing one king and setting up another, gave so sudden and marked an ascendancy to popular principles, that still greater concessions might be expected to be made hereafter to the third estate, without actually destroying the fluctuating and indefinable institution which we are accustomed to designate 'the constitution.' Such concessions at length came to be made under the covenants of the Reform Bill of 1832; and we have now only a few remarks to make on the high necessity of keeping due restraints upon the prospective tendencies of the great measure.

It is more essential to the safety of the monarchy and the so-called constitution of these realms than the great body of the British people are inclined to believe, that the Reform Bill be considered a *final* measure,—as one not intended to lead to a greater extension of the democratic privileges. Regarded as the full and ultimate concession of liberty, it may serve to confirm the Aristotelian axiom, 'that the due compound of monarchy, oligarchy, and polyarchy, will cause a state to reach the maximum point of a happy government;'

but should the elective suffrage, and the general principle of this enactment be further tampered with, the issue may easily be a subversion of civil order, even to the overthrow of the throne. We must not forget that in Austria, and especially in Tuscany, there are no parliaments whatever; and where do we find a happier people, where are taxes so light, and the people so contented? The blessings of a free constitution and a representative system are great; but there is a point beyond which they tend neither to the power of the sovereign, nor to the welfare of the people. We would remind the ultra friends of change that there was a time when the very leaders of such mutation declared all that was requisite would be gained when three questions should be carried in this country—Slave Emancipation, Catholic Emancipation, and Reform. *The three are carried.* Let them then be wise; and observe that even the last has left evils untouched, and perhaps paved the way for an eventual tyranny. Corruption and bribery at elections, the especial objects of attack, have scarcely at all been diminished by the Reform Bill; and positive bars have been placed against the return to parliament of whole classes of really useful men. Before the Reform Act, there were a considerable number of boroughs, whig and tory, though most of the former, whose constituencies were so far under the direction of one or of a few powerful individuals, that the election of any public man recommended from certain quarters, was a matter of certainty. There were other more venal boroughs, attached to neither party, where some 4000*l.* would bring in any candidate of respectable character. Through one or other of these channels almost every aspirant, rich enough to buy his way into parliament, or whose proved or reputed ability made it desirable to any party to possess his services there, was tolerably sure to accomplish his object. These abuses,

like most other evils, carried their advantages with them; and if the Reform Bill had been wisely framed, it should have contained provisions for preserving what was useful, amid the destruction of what was base. But in the general heat of the reform mania, as in the fight of the Reformation, the evils were greatly overrated, and the advantages wholly overlooked; and the new constitution thus came to be fashioned in the style of the house built by the man who chose to be his own architect, and who found, when he had finished it, that he had left out the staircase. Local influence, therefore, is now every thing in elections; the aristocracy have greater local influence than others; consequently that which was little intended must result—viz., that there will be a greater admixture of aristocracy than ever in the commons, with a correlatively smaller infusion of those who have no nobility but their talents and merit to recommend them. The agrarian agitation of the Romans set out with the design of giving sufficient power, by property in land, to the great majority, to insure, as was expected, the stability of republican institutions; but we all know that the direct issue was the destruction of the commonwealth, and the restoration of the dreaded tyranny of kings in the persons of the Cæsars.

INSURRECTION OF THE DUCHESS DE BERRI, 1832.—This princess, the widow of the assassinated duc de Berri, and mother of the duc de Bordeaux, in whose favour his grandfather, Charles X., and his uncle, the duc d'Angoulême, fruitlessly abdicated 1830, accompanied Charles X. in his exile to Holyrood House. Being assured, however, of a disposition existing in the south of France to espouse the cause of her son, she left Edinburgh 1831, and took her abode near Genoa. Her partisans in France having intimated the necessity of her appearance amongst them, she landed in April, 1832, at Marseille, in an open boat, with only

two of her suite, M. de Ménars, and general Bourmont. Night had set in; and, as they could neither proceed in the dark, nor venture into any house, for fear of discovery, they determined on sleeping under the shelter of a rock. The repose of the duchess, who was wrapt in a cloak, was sound; and when she awoke, she was overjoyed to perceive the white flag waving in lieu of the tricolor, on the church of St. Laurent. Her ardour would now have led her to enter Marseille, and declare herself; but her companions wisely induced her to go into the hut of a charcoal-burner, and remain there quietly until one of them should ascertain how far the city was disposed to favour her cause. General Bourmont, after a day's secret inquiry in Marseille, returned with the disheartening news, that the royalist party, after a slight movement in behalf of Henri V., had been overawed by the military; and recommended an instant departure from the neighbourhood. The duchess declared she would not quit France, but would proceed to La Vendée; and at nightfall, with a guide, the trio set out on foot, to perform that long and perilous journey. The guide having lost his way, after proceeding a few miles, they were compelled to bivouac for the night on the open ground; and the duchess, again wrapping herself in her cloak, slept soundly till the dawn of day. On waking, she was informed that a house within view belonged to a furious republican, maire of the commune of their present locality. Determining to go thither, though at the risk of her life, she requested de Ménars and de Bourmont to proceed to Montpellier, and on arriving at the mansion, she desired to speak with the maire. 'Sir,' she said, when he entered the drawing-room into which she had been ushered, 'you are a republican, I know:—I am the duchess of Berri,—and I simply ask you for a night's asylum.' The maire made her welcome, ordered a bed to be prepared

in his best chamber, and on the morrow conveyed her in his own carriage to Montpellier.

From Montpellier the duchess proceeded to Toulouse, accompanied by M. de Ménars, and the marquis de Loule, and thence to the château of a friend of the latter, where the party arrived in the middle of the night. As the host was not prepared for the arrival of so illustrious a person, and had a number of friends in his house, the duchess proposed to pass amongst them as his (the host's) cousin; and she played her part so well, that no suspicion of her real character was entertained by the strangers. Having employed herself, during some days which she spent at this house, in arranging for a general rising of the peasantry in La Vendée, she was conveyed in the disguise of a peasant-boy, by her host, on the 5th of May, to the neighbourhood of Grand-Lieu; where Charette, the generalissimo of the insurgent forces, met her, and accompanied her on foot to Aigrefeuille. On their way to that place the duchess fell into the stream, on attempting to ford the Maine, and, but for the promptitude of Charette, would have been drowned. In a mean cottage near Nantes, wherein she took up her abode for some time, she renewed her correspondence with the Vendéan chiefs; and in a miserable room, with bare walls, and a single chair, a table, and a clumsy bedstead, did she have interviews with some of the leading men of her party. The peasantry, aware of her retreat, allowed no one to approach the hovel without undergoing a strict scrutiny; and in the night of the 3d of June, the tocsin sounded for a general rising amongst them.

The first encounters between the military and insurgents were at Maisdon and Vieilleville, in both which the latter were defeated; and the duchess being present at that at Vieilleville, narrowly escaped being taken prisoner, avoiding the disaster only by hastily exchanging horses with Charette. It was soon evident that

the Vendéans could not stand their ground. The government troops were everywhere, and in such force, that no sooner was any local rising attempted, than it was crushed, and the duchess herself was obliged to fly from place to place, to avoid being captured by the soldiers. So closely was she pursued by them, that she was rarely able to enjoy an entire night's sleep. The chiefs of her party, therefore, suggested that she should proceed secretly to Nantes, where an asylum was prepared for her; and that on a certain market-day, a large body of the insurgents, disguised as peasants, should enter the city, seize the castle, and declare Nantes the provisional capital of the kingdom.

In pursuance of this plan, the duchess, in the dress of a peasant-girl, accompanied by M. de Ménars as a farmer, and a female, set out on foot for Nantes. During the journey, the duchess's feet suffered so severely from the thick worsted stockings and clumsy shoes she wore, that she sat down on a bank, took them off, stuffed them into her large pockets, and continued her way barefooted. The unusual whiteness of her legs, as compared with those of the country girls, being likely to excite suspicion, she rubbed them over with moist earth, and in this condition entered, daughter of a race of kings as she was, the ancient city of Nantes. Before, however, she had reached her appointed abode, an old apple-woman, taking her for what she appeared to be, requested her and her female companion to help her in placing her basket of fruit upon her head, promising each an apple for their trouble. To prove the self-command of the duchess, she not only cheerfully complied, and reminded the woman of the promised reward, but also stopped afterwards to read a placard on a wall, which offered a price for her head, and declared her party outlawed.

The royal fugitive at length reached the house selected for her abode, and took possession of a room, fur-

nished with a place of concealment, to which she could retire on the appearance of danger. The retreat in question was an ingeniously-contrived recess behind the fireplace ; to which she was always to retire at the ringing of a bell from beneath. The back of the chimney, which consisted of an iron plate, turned on its centre, and thus formed a door to the concealed, but windowless, apartment. In this dwelling she remained five months ; and although it was known to the police that she was in Nantes, by no means they could adopt were they able to discover the house of her sojourning. Treachery, however, effected what diligence could not. One Deutz, who had been high in her confidence, informed the officers of justice of her place of residence ; but as he was not aware of the secret recess, the soldiers, who accompanied Colonel Lorraine to the house, would have searched for their prize in vain, had not a mere accident given her into their hands. On the first alarm of danger, the duchess, with her female companion, Mlle. Kersabiec, M. de Ménars, and M. Guibourg, who formed her household, retired to the recess ; and though, during the whole night, the search continued with unabated vigilance, on the part of both police and soldiery, the duchess was nowhere to be found. Architects and masons were employed to compare the exterior with the interior appearance of the apartments, with the view of detecting some contrivance for concealment, but in vain. They could make no discovery, though they hammered with great violence at the walls of the recess itself, insomuch that large fragments of lime fell amongst the little party, and added to their fears of being buried in the ruins of the house, which they supposed was about to be pulled down. A similar examination of the neighbouring houses was then made ; and bedrooms and recesses of every kind underwent a strict but equally fruitless investigation. Still the party held out ; and it began to be be-

lieved that the duchess had escaped, when two soldiers, who were left on guard in the room which had the secret closet, feeling the cold severe (now November), kindled a large fire in the fireplace behind which the fugitives were concealed. The heat and smoke in the recess became, after a little while, almost insupportable ; but not until the clothes of the duchess had repeatedly taken fire, would she think of a surrender. It was then more for the sake of her companions in suffering, than of herself, that, opening the door of the recess, she walked into the apartment, followed by her friends, and announced herself to the two astonished guards. The party had been cooped up in a space three and a half feet in length, and decreasing from eighteen to eight inches in width, for sixteen hours ; and all of them were covered with dust, begrimed with smoke, and singed both in hair and garments. The duchess having declared her name to the soldiers, general Dermoncourt was sent for, assured her of his protection, and conducted her eventually, with great respect, to the castle of Nantes. ' Ah, general ! ' said the still gay heroine, ' if you had not waged war with me as against St. Lawrence, unworthy as it was of a brave and loyal knight, you would not now have my arm under yours.' The duchess was conveyed from Nantes to Fossé, and thence to the fortress of Blaye ; but after some months' confinement, she was liberated, on the ground of her being *enceinte*—an announcement which at once dissolved the romantic illusion her seemingly heroic conduct had created. Her royal highness's fame was of course assailed by the enemies of her cause ; but we believe it is matter of fact that, during the plotting of the outbreak, she had given her hand at the altar, however clandestinely, to the before alluded to Marquis de Loule. It is also true that the cause of ' Henri Cinq ' lost every valuable support through that injudicious proceeding. This is the last Chouan

émeute that it falls to the lot of the historian to record.

THE SIEGE OF ANTWERP, 1832.—The king of Holland having refused to evacuate the citadel of Antwerp, in conformity with the terms agreed on by the powers which had arranged the separation of Belgium from Holland, the French, under marshal Gerard, advanced upon the place in the autumn of 1832, to the number of 70,000. The citadel was defended by general Chassé and 45,000 men. The besiegers broke ground on the 29th of November; and on the 24th of December the place surrendered. General Chassé behaved with great valour, and was eventually left with no roof to protect him: but military men regard the defence as wanting plan, although every Dutchman appeared to do his duty during the contest. The Dutch lost 500, and the French 200 men.

SUCCESSION WAR IN SPAIN.—Of this contest, which occupied seven years, from 1833 to 1840 inclusive, a sketch is given in the reign of queen Maria Isabel II. of Spain.

THE CHINA TRADE THROWN OPEN, 1833.—The English East India Company, from the period of its establishment, had monopolized the trade in tea and other articles with the Chinese empire and India, and its privileges had been guarded by the usual grant of a charter from parliament, renewable every twenty years; that course being adopted to afford the legislature the power of withholding such privileges at the expiration of any term, should the benefit of the nation demand such a proceeding. Thus, in 1793, some participation of the India trade was permitted to the nation at large; and, in 1813, the restrictions thereon were so greatly relaxed, that, in so far as concerns principle, it was then virtually thrown open. The complete opening of the China trade was but a question of time and circumstance. The exclusive privilege of the Company could only have been regarded, as all such monopolies ought, as a means to an

end—not as an ultimate object. It was, in fact, the gradual and guarded preparation for a more diffusive commerce; and it was not without a reference to this view of the subject, that the legislature, by granting at successive times the charter, provided for a periodical revision of the arrangement adopted, until no restraint whatever should mark the trade of Great Britain with eastern nations. In 1833 the time had come, in the opinion of parliament, for admitting all British merchants to a share in the trade with China; and the exclusive right of the Company was then abolished. Unmixed good must not be expected, however, from the arrangement; since monopolies, with all their selfishness, very frequently insure one species of return to the public. For their inconvenience in keeping up *prices*, they compensate by preserving the *quality* of imported articles of commerce; and we are quite sure, as regards the unrestricted trade with China, that the supply of sound and genuine teas has already become a matter of problem and uncertainty.

REVOLT OF EGYPT, 1833.—A large body of Egyptian malcontents having, to escape the tyranny of Mehemet Ali, the pacha, taken refuge in Syria, 1832, Mehemet sent his son Ibrahim with a large force, to punish the pacha of Acre for protecting them. Syria thereupon, through a species of panic fear on the part of its soldiery, fell into the possession of the invaders, almost without resistance; to the great joy of Mehemet, who now possessed a country rich in forests and iron-mines, of which Egypt is wholly deficient. After the fall of Acre to Ibrahim, the victorious Egyptian prince proceeded to attack the Turkish army, which had hastily assembled to oppose his further progress. Early in July he encountered it at Homs, near Aleppo, turned its flank, and defeated it. The Turks retired, and again took up a position at Alexandria, which Ibrahim turned with

similar success, and continued his march. Redschid Pacha was now sent by the sultan Mahmud to take the command of the Turks, (who had hitherto been headed by Hussein, the immolator of the Janizaries ;) but the new general found the spirit of the troops gone, and a third attack by Ibrahim at Konieh, in December, completely overcame them—the Grand Vizir himself being made prisoner by the Egyptians. This defeat took place within a fortnight's march of Constantinople; and had Ibrahim instantly advanced, nothing could have saved the Turkish capital. But after wasting a month at Konieh, he found a Russian force had encamped hastily on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus for the protection of Constantinople, and that the European powers had united to induce his retreat. A treaty therefore was at once executed at Kutaich, by which not only the Great Powers, but the Porte acknowledged Syria added to the pachalik of Mehemet Ali. Throughout this campaign, both armies adopted European tactics; and Ibrahim's superiority is believed to have resulted from the able counsels of an old officer of Napoleon, who acted as chief of the Egyptian staff. Syria remained under the power of Mehemet Ali, as the pacha and subject of the Porte, until his determination to act as an independent sovereign induced the British and Austrians, in 1840, to support the power of the sultan, and wrest Syria from the hands of the aspiring satrap. (See *Syrian Expedition*, and *Egypt under Mehemet Ali*.)

DURHAM UNIVERSITY FOUNDED, 1833.—The large and increasing population of the north of England, and its remoteness from Oxford and Cambridge, had long pointed out the expediency of establishing in that part of the kingdom an institution which should secure to its inhabitants the advantages of a sound, yet not expensive academical education; and under the auspices of Dr. Van Mildert, bishop of Durham, the dean and

chapter of Durham agreed to supply the acknowledged deficiency out of their own funds—a point they could effect, not only without contravening, but in exact conformity with the principles on which the society of the dean and chapter was incorporated—the education of youth being enumerated among the objects of the establishment, both in its charter of foundation, and in its statutes. On the strength of the regular annual contributions of the bishop and chapter, the sale of lands, &c., and by obtaining an act of parliament to annex three of the prebendal stalls in the cathedral of Durham to the respective offices of warden, professor of divinity, and professor of Greek, the university was opened October, 1833; and the castle of Durham being, by a subsequent order of the privy council, added to the property of the establishment, a college, with an excellent chapel and hall, were thereby obtained by the same. Degrees were allowed to be conferred, as at Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin; and each of those universities was allowed to participate *ad eundem*—the same privilege being by them respectively allowed to the Durham graduates.

REFORM OF THE FACTORY SYSTEM, 1833.—This system owes its origin to the invention and skill of Arkwright. Though the name of *factory* is equally employed to denote an establishment in which a considerable number of artisans work together to produce any article of manufacture whatever by the aid of machinery, it is probable that, but for the invention of spinning-machinery, and the consequent necessary aggregation of large numbers of workmen in cotton-mills, the name would never have been thus applied. It is in these cotton-mills that the factory-system has been brought to its highest state of perfection; and from them it has spread to the three other spinning establishments, of wool, silk, and flax. At the present moment there are in Great Britain and Ireland 1250 cotton, 1300 woollen, 240 silk, and 350

flax factories ; and in each of these a very large proportion of the hands employed consists of children. The large sums invested in machinery, make it a matter of great importance to the owners to keep their works in motion as constantly as possible ; and unless prevented by legislative interference, there is too much reason to believe that children may be tasked in them beyond their strength, to the permanent injury of their constitutions. This abuse was the more to be apprehended, because a large proportion of the children engaged in cotton-spinning are not directly employed by the masters, but are under the control of the spinners, a highly-paid class of workmen, whose earnings depend greatly upon the length of time during which they can keep their young assistants at work. Although the recitals of cruelties alleged to exist were shown, upon investigation, to have been very greatly exaggerated, it cannot be denied that enough of misery was proved to render it imperative upon the legislature to interfere ; and after a full examination, at the factories themselves, by parliamentary commissioners, into the kind and degree of abuses that prevailed, an act was passed, 1833, the provisions of which are believed to have effected all the good which can be produced, consistently with the prosecution of the branches of industry to which the act applies. No children under nine, excepting in silk-mills, are to be employed ; and the hours of labour, periods of school, and days of holiday, are carefully marked down, to prevent a recurrence of the evils formerly complained of. Had the act also compelled the acceptance of regular weekly wages by the adult workers in factories, much more good might have been effected ; since the system of working by piece, which enables the idle portion to gain a large part of the year as holiday, during which habits of drunkenness and of vice in general, are induced, and all the gains are wasted, would by that

means have been abolished, to the profit of both masters and men.

POOR-LAW AMENDMENT ACT, 1834.—The tax for the support of the poor of England and Wales had risen to 8,000,000*l.* yearly ; and the population, in a time of peace, having increased twenty per cent. since 1821, the poor-rates were sure to keep on augmenting in proportion. After nine years' trial, it may be fairly said that, on far higher grounds than cheapness (which is not always every thing) the new law has corrected much of the vicious principle of the old one. It has been a saving to the public, and, with all its hardships, a great and undeniable improvement to the condition of the poor. Under the old system, the tax would now have amounted to 10,000,000*l.*, whereas it is only 5,000,000*l.* and instead of 250,000*l.* being expended yearly in law-suits upon settlements and the removal of the poor, the amount so disbursed by the country is barely 10,000*l.* The worst effect of the old law was, that it gave the poor a power of challenging relief as a matter of right ; that it confounded two things always to be kept distinct—wages and private charity. It gave relief from the poor-rates in aid of wages, and thus confounded the right of the labourer to a just remuneration for his industry, with his mere claim of imperfect right, under the score of compassion for his distress. Wages were thus lowered among the poor generally, and one part of the community had to pay for services rendered to another. The wages of the farmer were frequently paid by a general labour-rate, payable as well by those who were farmers, and had the benefit of this cheap labour, as by those who were not farmers, and employed no such labourers. On the score of private charity, also, the system acted equally mischievously. The overseers gave what they pleased ; and thus gave away money over which they had no real right. The labourer was thus degraded ; and the attempt

to distribute in such a way, had the effect of stopping private charity, and of substituting a much less generous and effective principle. Immense sums were thus mis-spent upon unworthy objects; no discrimination was practicable or attempted; and our large towns, instead of being so many bee-hives of industry, were covered with a swarming pauper population, which practised every fraud and deception to avoid labour. By the new law several parishes are united together, with one common workhouse; and the affairs of each workhouse are regulated by a board of 'guardians,' chosen from the respective parishes, such guardians being again controlled by a board of paid commissioners in London. Relief is given in kind, rather than in money; comparatively few being in any way aided who will not enter the workhouse. In some points there is doubtless a harsh working, after the comforts of the old system, and a little more local power might be awarded, without danger of abuse; but when greater favour shall have been extended to the *aged* poor—say of sixty and upwards—and to widows with many young children, there will be nothing to complain of. In proof that great good has been effected, we have only to notice that, though there are assizes in every county, and quarter-sessions in almost every large town, not a dozen of complaints in the whole kingdom against the shocking and painful abuses talked of, have been verified against the new system before the magistrates, or brought to the notice of the criminal courts; and this is the best argument against the necessity (which some urge) of a settled statute-law for the poor, whereby they might assert their 'rights,' and find their remedies against the alleged unjust withholding of relief on the part of functionaries.

But oh! what in itself a sinful conduct was that, and, in its consequences, how injurious to the English people, then and for ever, which

threw the poor first into a position so desperate, as to need legislative enactments, in lieu of Christian sympathy, to bring them relief. 'The great sin of the Reformation (says the sensible Alison) was the confiscation of so large a portion of the property of the Church for the aggrandisement of temporal ambition, and the enriching of the nobility who had taken a part in the struggle. When that great convulsion broke out, nearly a third of the whole landed estates in the countries which it embraced, was in the hands of the regular and parochial clergy. What a noble fund this for the moral and religious instruction of the people, for the promulgation of truth, the healing of sickness, the assuaging of suffering! Had it been kept together, and set apart for such sacred purposes, what incalculable and never-ending blessings would it have conferred upon society! Expanding and increasing with the growth of population, the augmentation of wealth, the swell of pauperism, it would have kept the instruction and fortunes of the poor abreast of the progress and fortunes of society, and prevented, in a great measure, that fatal effect, so well known in Great Britain in subsequent times, of the national church falling behind the wants of the inhabitants, and a mass of civilized heathenism arising in the very heart of a Christian land. Almost all the social evils under which Great Britain is now labouring, may be traced to this fatal and most iniquitous spoliation, under the mask of religion, of the patrimony of the poor on occasion of the Reformation. But for that robbery, the state would have been possessed of lauds amply sufficient to have extended its religious instruction for any possible increase of the people; to have superseded the necessity of any assessment for parochial relief, or general instruction; and to have provided, without burdening any one, for the whole spiritual and temporal wants of the community. When we reflect on

the magnitude of the injustice committed by the temporal nobility in the seizure, at that period, of so large a portion of the funds of the Church, and observe how completely all the evils which now threaten the social system in Great Britain would have been obviated if that noble patrimony had still been preserved for the poor, it is impossible to avoid feeling that we too are subject to the same just dispensation, which has doomed France to oriental slavery for the enormous sins of its revolution; and that if our punishment is not equally severe, it is only because the confiscation of the Reformation was not so complete, nor the inroads on property so irretrievable.'

TRADES' UNION AGITATION.—Six agricultural labourers were sentenced to seven years' transportation at the Dorchester assizes, April, 1834, for felony, in being members of an illegal society (trades' union) and administering unlawful oaths. Numerous assemblies were held, in consequence, in different parts of the kingdom, in Union Lodges; and after using the most violent language, it was determined, *in congress*, to alarm the country, by bringing one of the largest crowds of labouring people together in the metropolis, under the pretext of showing sympathy for the convicted felons. With this view a body of trades'-unionists, estimated at about 30,000, assembled in Copenhagen Fields, London, and marched thence in procession to Whitehall, April 21st, to deliver to the secretary of state a petition to the king, said to be signed by 266,000 persons in behalf of the Dorchester convicts. Lord Melbourne declined to receive a document so delivered; and the multitude, having after a time quietly dispersed, the petition was afterwards presented by a deputation, and then received.—(See *Chartist Riots*.)

BURNING OF THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, 1834.—These buildings, including the ancient chapel of St. Stephen, were totally consumed by fire, in consequence of some work-

men having over-heated the stoves: happily, however, the national archives and library were saved. Although endeared to us by time and circumstances, the erections thus destroyed were scarcely worthy of the great assemblies within their walls; and it was almost a reproach to a country like England, not to have the two houses of parliament sufficiently capacious, and the passages between them sufficiently expanded, to admit of every member of either house having a fixed and certain place to claim as his own, and the power of going to it, at any time, with ease and comfort. To illustrate the latter remark, and afford a description which, in the main, is historically useful, we will briefly describe the opening of a new parliament, *temp.* king William IV.

The house of commons having assembled, was summoned by the usher of the black rod to appear before the king's commissioners in the lords: whereon the speaker, attended by 200 members, repaired to their lordships' bar. The speaker having solicited the king's approval of his election, and, on behalf of the commons of the united kingdom, petitioned for all their ancient privileges, more especially those of freedom of debate, freedom from arrest for themselves and servants, and free access to his majesty when occasion might demand, and all his prayers being granted, he returned with the commons to the other house, and commenced swearing in the members, which was thus conducted. The clerk at the table called over the counties in alphabetical succession for England and Wales; Scotland and Ireland being to follow in the same manner. When all the members present in the house for the places included in each county called had repaired to the table, they were called over by the name of the place they represented, and thereupon gave in their names and qualifications. This being completed, they were then all called over by name

only, and required to take the New Testament in the right hand, and the printed forms of oath in the left. When all were ready, the chief clerk read over the first oath; and all the members, holding the books, recited it aloud after him; and at the end of the oath, pronounced these words, 'So help me God,' and kissed the sacred volume. This was repeated with every oath, of which there were several. The members were then again called over individually, and each required to enter his signature in two separate books of the house, under the name of the county or borough for which he was a representative; and having so done, he was taken by the chief clerk to the speaker, who was in his chair, introduced to him by name, greeted by him with a cordial shake of the hand, and then allowed to withdraw. On the Tuesday following, the commons assembled for public business at twelve o'clock; and from that hour to two, the members continued arriving, until the house was literally crammed; and neither sitting room nor standing room could be found for members, who accordingly withdrew, and walked about in the lobby, and in the passages, until the time for attending in the house of lords to hear the king deliver his speech in person. The preparations for this were curious. The older and more experienced members, who knew what difficulty there would be in getting into the house of lords, stationed themselves close to the door of entrance a full hour before the period fixed for its being opened: they were followed by others, who literally lined the passage from the one house to the other, two or three deep, leaving just an avenue for the passage of the speaker, when, he should arrive, to pass along their ranks. The more determined had left even their hats behind, buttoned their coats closely, and taken off their gloves, to be prepared for a severe struggle; and, as the event proved, they acted prudently. About half past-two, the speaker appeared, and

had the greatest difficulty to pass along the avenue described; when, the instant he had passed, a closing in of the struggling crowd behind him nearly overpowered the right honourable gentleman himself, though he was preceded and followed by officers especially appointed to attend his person. The pressure was so excessive, that the appearance was that of a general scuffle, or fight; and the subsequent rush into the house of lords was so entirely like that of a mob breaking down the barriers of a ring or a race-course, that even the gravity of the king upon the throne was discomposed. The panting of the exhausted and breathless commoners, who had thus struggled their way into the house, formed a striking contrast to the stillness and repose which pervaded the privileged assembly of the lords,—all calmly seated, and turning their eyes with dignified but mute astonishment towards the spot which was still agitated by the ruffings and elbowings of their fellow senators.

St. Stephen's chapel had been from the year 1540 the room of assembly of the commons: it was originally part of Edward the Confessor's palace, and king Stephen named it, on occasion of opening it after some important repairs, in honour of his name-saint, 1150. It may not be out of place here to present the reader with a short account of the formalities observed in parliament in the bringing in and passing of statutes. Any member may move for a bill to be brought in, except it be for imposing a tax—which must be done by order of the house; and on permission being granted, the person making the motion, and those who second it, are ordered to prepare and bring in the bill; which when ready is presented by one of these members; and on the question being agreed to, it undergoes the first reading by the clerk at the table. After this, the clerk delivers the bill to the speaker, who declares the substance of it; and if any debate happen, he

puts the question 'whether it shall be read a second time?' and sometimes, upon motions, appoints a day for it; public bills, unless upon extraordinary occasions, being seldom read more than once in one day, in order that members may have sufficient time to consider them. If nothing be said against a bill, the ordinary course is to proceed without a question; but if the bill be generally disliked, a question is sometimes put, 'Whether the bill shall be rejected?' If it be rejected, it cannot be proposed any more during that session. When a bill has been read a second time, any member may move to have it amended; but no member of the house is admitted to speak more than once in a debate, excepting the bill be read more than once that day, or the whole house resolve into a committee. After debate, the speaker, collecting the sense of the house, reduces it to a question, which he puts to the vote. When the bill has been read a second time, a question is put, whether it shall be committed,—that is, referred to a committee, consisting either of the whole house, or of a limited number of members, according to the importance of the bill. This committee is to report their opinion of the bill, with the amendments, to the house, the chairman having put every clause to the question; the chairman delivers the report of the committee to the clerk of parliament, who reads the amendments; and the speaker puts the question, whether they shall be read a second time? If that be agreed to, he reads the amendments, and puts the question, whether the bill, so amended, shall be engrossed, and read a third time some other day? After the bill has been read a third time, the speaker puts the last question, whether the bill shall pass? If a majority of voices are for it, then the bill passes, and it is sent up to the lords; if it be amended by the lords, it is sent back to the commons for their concurrence; and if they demur, a conference takes place in

the Painted Chamber, between certain deputed members from each house: when they have agreed, the bill is ready to receive the royal assent.

THE ABOLITION OF NEGRO SLAVERY in our West India colonies was finally effected 1834; and the outline of that proceeding will be found in the history of the present reign.

TUMULT IN THE KIRK OF SCOTLAND, 1835.—There had existed in the kirk, from the period of the act of queen Anne, 1712, which regulated the law of presentation to benefices, a considerable disposition to dispute the right of the civil power to compel the acceptance by the respective presbyteries of persons, however qualified in order to their induction, to kirk livings; and in 1835 the General Assembly passed what is styled 'the Veto Act,' a most illegal encroachment on the civil right of patronage. Under the opposing banners of *non-intrusionists* and *intrusionists*, with the titles to the respective partisans of *highfliers* and *moderates*, a polemical controversy then commenced, which, in the judgment of the sober, forebodes, if not the actual ruin of the kirk, at least the expulsion of the majority of its ministers. How the General Assembly could abolish an act of parliament by their own authority (for they issued a command to all the presbyteries to disobey the act of 1712) remains to be shown; but it is clear that the kirk thus refuses to fulfil one of the most important of the conditions on which she was taken into alliance with the state, and so necessarily forfeits all privileges of such alliance. How far it may be wise for the parliament to set aside its own act of 1712, and the Veto Act of 1835, as both of them are encroachments from opposite quarters upon the contract made at the Union, is another question. There are who consider that such a course is the only merciful one to save the kirk; as, by falling back upon the kirk laws of 1649 (when the General

Assembly, just after the Great Rebellion, was in a position to exhibit and maintain the real principles of presbyterianism), security would, it is alleged, be given for the introduction of fit ministers. The congregation would have power to reject the patron's nominee *for adequate reasons*, but *not for causeless prejudices*,—the church courts being judges of the adequacy of the reasons assigned in every case. Certainly the non-intrusion party might be satisfied with so great a concession; for the absolute veto, if allowed to nullify the wholesome control of ecclesiastical authority, must tend indefinitely to strengthen every popular error and evil tendency, and, by the mutual reflection of baneful influences, must infect both the teachers and the taught with one common and incurable corruption. The final decision of the house of lords, meanwhile, 1842, in 'the Auchterarder case,' has, by the unanimous concurring judgment of the law peers in the upper branch of the legislature, ruled it to be imperative on every Scottish presbytery, as 'bound and ascribed' by the ancient as well as modern statutes of the realm, to 'take on trials' every person legally presented to a Scotch benefice. This decision has found that (while so taking upon trials the presentee) life, literature, and doctrine, are the sole criteria by which his competency to discharge the duties of a parish minister are to be tested; and it utterly discards, as a mere phantom of non-intrusion brains, the idea that acceptability to the parishioners, to a majority of such parishioners, or to any portion of them whatsoever, can be admitted as a *sine quâ non*, in judging of the competency referred to. This decision, in short, ought to be regarded as ultimate; since, with all costs against the party who appealed the case from the court of session, it confirms the decree of the court below, and declares conclusively, that whenever a presbytery refuses or delays to act on the principle here laid down,

it is liable, both to the presentee and the patron, in pecuniary damages of the heaviest description. The Auchterarder case was one wherein the earl of Kinnoul, as patron, presented to the presbytery of Auchterarder the reverend Robert Young as a minister; and the majority of that presbytery rejecting the presentee, the earl laid his damages at 16,000*l.* The non-intrusion, or high-flying party, must thus have been mulcted 20,000*l.* at the least, in a single trial of the great question. It is very evident that, should the non-intrusionists be allowed to hold their ground, they will restore the ancient fanaticism of the covenanters—the high church party in the kirk being analogous, by their hatred of catholicity and church-unity, to the low-church division of the English establishment. The chief highfliers we believe to be Drs. Chandler, Candlish, and Gordon, and Messrs. Guthrie, Cunningham, and Dunlop: the chief moderates, Drs. Bryce, Cooke, and Robertson.

LAW OF REFORM OF ENGLISH CORPORATIONS PASSED, 1835.—This bill was carried with as much regard to municipal rights as could be expected (see *Reign of Henry VII.*). That reform was needed, after the lapse of years, is clear enough; and that this has been effected without a resort to popular elections, and their consequent evils, is matter of rejoicing. As it is of the first importance to retain a salutary reverence, not only for prescription and establishment, but also for those general rules and admitted maxims, which have only become universally received, because the experience of men has proved their utility, and has thus made them the landmarks of human reason and prudence, so it is manifest to common sense that, in the extraordinary variability of mundane affairs, such cases are likely to arise, as may render it much more wise to depart from a rule, however rigid, than to observe it. The calls for the change can only be looked for in matters where-

in the great and acknowledged good of maintaining the prescription is so evidently overweighed by the enormity of the present abuse, or by the greater advantage which would result from a new practice, as to leave no doubt in the mind of every fair reasoner by which course the public good would be most effectually promoted. All we can concede to a general principle, or prescriptive claim, in such cases, is, that we must fully and fairly take into view the true nature and value of such principle, and therefore make a full allowance for the manner in which the precedent may act in affecting other times and other interests: we may consider it, in fact, as a very serious thing to make these precedents, and we must never admit them but where the contrary good is not only very clear and distinct, but very great and preponderating.

RETURN OF HALLEY'S COMET, 1835.—Dr. Halley determined the parabolic elements of a comet which appeared in his time, 1682; and as these were found to correspond very nearly with those of two comets which had respectively appeared in 1531 and 1607 (a lapse of between seventy-five and seventy-six years), he concluded that the three orbits belonged to the same identical comet. Up to this period nothing certain was known of the laws of the cometary system: comets, in the main, being regarded as meteors, which, soon after their appearance in the heavens, were absorbed by the sun. A new era, therefore, in astronomy began, when it was presumed that comets were as solid as, and only more eccentric than, other planets. As Halley predicted, the same comet returned, 1759, the attraction of the planets having occasioned it to take a certain number more of days in returning to the perihelion, than in the preceding revolution. Its parabolic elements were found accordingly to be a little altered from those of its former visit, precisely as had been calculated by the astronomer, Clairault. M. Da-

moiseau next calculated the return to the perihelion on the next occasion to require 28,007 days; and this still more accurate reckoning agreed with the comet's return in the autumn of 1835.

REDUCTION OF NEWSPAPER STAMPS.—In 1836 (7 William IV.), the stamp-duty on newspapers in England, which had been gradually raised from 1*d.* to 4*d.*, was at once reduced again to 1*d.* The total number of stamps issued in one year for the newspapers of the whole United Kingdom is about 56,000,000; of which 30,000,000 are for London journals. The 'Times' London newspaper is undoubtedly at the head of the British public press, whether as regards circulation, authentic and early information, or 'editorial' talent, if we may coin a word. Moreover, there is a liberal dealing on the part of the directors of that journal, a civility, consideration, and wish to oblige, which, with reasonable charges, would induce any person desirous of obtaining advantage through the medium of a newspaper, to advertise therein. So kind has been the disposition of the said directors to aid the public institutions of the metropolis, particularly the school of Christ's hospital, whose pupils they have greatly employed at the press, that the bishop of London and others resolved to express their sense of such laudable conduct by a public testimonial, 1842. A sum of money was raised, and it was ultimately agreed that 'The Times Testimonial' should be embodied in a perpetual gift to the before-named royal school, by certain exhibitions to either university, entitled 'Times' scholarships.' Since the reduction of the duty, the 'Times' newspaper has commonly issued daily, during the session of parliament, a double paper, that is, eight pages of six columns each. The printed area of the whole paper (both sides) is more than 11½ square feet, or a space of nearly 5 feet by 4; and on a rough estimate, it contains about 113,000 words, which is equal to

(allowing for difference of size in the type) about 200 8vo pages of common book printing. The 'Times' is printed by steam power, and its press is capable of giving off 2500 copies in an hour, perfect—that is, printed on both sides; so that an impression of 12,500 can be completed in five hours. The paper is generally put to press at five in the morning; at half-past six publication commences; and at ten the whole impression is ready to be issued to the public. Mr. Babbage, after describing the manner in which eight-and-forty columns are formed into eight pages, and placed on the platform of the printing-machine, says, 'Ink is rapidly supplied to the moving types by the most perfect mechanism; four attendants incessantly introduce the edges of large sheets of white paper to the junction of two great rollers, which seem to devour them with unsated appetite; other rollers convey them to the type already inked, and having brought them into rapid and successive contact, re-deliver them to four other assistants, completely printed by the almost momentary touch.' Fifteen or sixteen gentlemen are employed by the 'Times,' for the purpose of reporting the debates in parliament; others are engaged to report the trials in the courts of law, examinations and convictions before police magistrates, and to furnish accounts of all public meetings of any interest or importance, both in London and the provinces. When any important debate is expected in either house of parliament, four reporters are engaged by the 'Times' for the lords, and four for the commons, the process of reporting being the same in each house. The first reporter takes notes for an hour, before the end of which time the second reporter is by his side, and ready to succeed him. The first then hastens to the 'Times' office, to write out his notes at length for the compositors; the second remains for an hour, and then hurries away (in a coach or cab) like the former; while the third is taking

notes for another hour, and he is followed in the same manner by the fourth. The first reporter is now ready to succeed the fourth; he takes notes for an hour, and is followed up by the second, and so on till the house breaks up. By this process, the whole of a series of debates, which began at four or five in the afternoon, and continued till three or four in the morning, is issued to the public within a few hours of the time when the debate terminated. Few of the best reporters ever use short-hand, save for notes that are employed rather as an assistance to the memory in giving an abstract of the speeches, than in reporting them as they were spoken. All the other London papers have reporters, but of course on a smaller scale. The lowest price charged for an advertisement in the 'Times,' is 5s., with the exception of servants wanting places, which are only 4s. If it exceed four lines, 6d. is charged for every additional line, till it reaches the length of about twenty lines. When it exceeds this length, the rate of charge is increased, the longest advertisements being charged at the highest rate. One hundred persons, including three editors, the fifteen or sixteen reporters, three or four readers, three or four clerks, twelve attendants on the machinery, about fifty compositors, besides foreign correspondents, news-collectors, and agents, are constantly employed by the establishment of the 'Times.' There are in London ten daily, thirty-three weekly, four three-times-a-week, and three twice-a-week papers, besides the 'Times.' The 'Times' has of course the greatest sale of any paper, being nearly 12,000 per day, and about 500 advertisements; the 'Morning Chronicle' the next, the sale of which averages 7000 per day, and 200 advertisements. Of the weekly papers, the 'Weekly Dispatch' sells the most, averaging 51,000 per week; the 'Weekly Chronicle,' 32,000; 'Bell's Life in London,' 20,000; and 'Bell's Weekly Messenger,' 17,000. As re-

spects what is called 'the liberty of the press,' we confess that a certain discretion allowed to journalists is a most valuable boon to the community: but, as may be seen by the large sale of the *inferior* weekly journals, it is clear that 'licentiousness,' is understood by the word 'liberty' among the great mass of newspaper-readers below the respectable classes. For the sake of religion, morals, and common order and decency, and for the protection of the interests of the better journals, those now in power, not being, like the late ministers, negligent of such matters, would do well to devise a reform of so evident and so dangerous an abuse.

THE LONDON UNIVERSITY CHARTERED, 1836.—The charter includes what was originally called the 'London University,' founded in Gower-street, 1827, and 'King's College,' founded at Somerset-house, 1829; and, as a joint institution, it is empowered to grant academical degrees to such as shall have acquired, in the estimation of the senate, proficiency in literature, science, and art. Both institutions had their origin at the moment of the rage for founding joint-stock schools; a mania which ruined hundreds of private establishments for education in and around the metropolis, in a brief period of time. The 'London University' having proposed a plan of tuition, without exclusiveness as to religious tenets, King's College was projected by a party of churchmen, to counteract the evil influence of the project; and the issue was happily in favour of the latter. Neither party, however, can be praised for any great display of tenderness towards old-established vested interests.

REVOLUTION IN BURMAH, 1837.—In consequence of frequent attacks of hypochondriasis, the king of Ava (or Burmah) was compelled to leave the government greatly in the hands of his chief queen and her brother, Menthagyi, both persons of low origin, and consequently, not of the royal blood, who soon deprived the

king's son and brothers of all share in the power and patronage of the state, substituting their own relations and friends into the principal offices. At length the king's eldest brother, Tharawadi, indignant at being thus supplanted, leagued (under the plea of securing the succession to his nephew—the rightful heir after the king.) with Nga Yek, and other robber-chiefs, to aid him in raising forces wherewith to surprise Ava; and the queen's ministers having discovered the plot, the prince, on the night of Feb. 24th, 1837, escaped with his family and 400 armed followers from Ava across the Erawadi to the opposite town of Isagain, and thence to Mouttshobo, Alompra's old capital, fifty miles distant from Ava. Tharawadi here found his adherents daily increase, even many of the royal soldiery joining him; and he soon openly declared his intention of driving out his brother, as well as the queen and Menthagyi. From the period of the war between the English and the Burmese, 1824, the British government in India had kept a resident minister at the Ava court; and lieut.-col. Henry Burney was now in that capacity. The colonel had been strictly enjoined by his government to preserve himself neutral in the present dispute; and when he found no chance of saving British property and life, he, after in vain labouring to reconcile the contending parties, induced the king, his family, and ministers, to yield Ava to the superior forces of the prince, and retire with himself to Rangoon. Tharawadi, however, who was on his march to Ava, stipulated, on finding his brother consent so easily to relinquish his capital and crown, that, to prove no treachery was intended against him, thirteen of the chief ministers and officers of the king (among them Menthagyi,) should first go over to Isagain, and surrender themselves there to his son, prince Thait-teng-bin; which they accordingly did in the presence of colonel Burney, April 7th. On the 9th,

Tharawadi put in irons all the kings ministers who had surrendered, and sent his son, T-hart-ten-gyih, with 2000 men, to take possession of the palace and city of Ava. He then assumed the title of king of Yata-nathainga, a Pali name for Moutt-shobo; and, surrounding himself with notorious robbers, hung Maung Baya, the individual who had first charged him with treasonable designs against his brother—in defiance of the remonstrances of colonel Burney, who pointed out the usurper's guarantee to the British, 'that the lives of the late ministry should be safe if they surrendered.' On the day after this breach of faith, Tharawadi publicly executed seven more of the late King's friends, and some of them in the most barbarous manner. One was sawn asunder from the head downwards; another had his head cut open with a hatchet; while the wife of the latter, for having petitioned for her husband's life, was beaten to death with clubs! Finding intreaty useless, and not being in a condition to use force, colonel Burney, whom Tharawadi to a certain extent respected, solicited permission, under the plea of ill-health, (for which there was some ground,) to remove all the British to Rangoon; and the usurper, (whose private resolution was to drive all the English from Burmah,) not only readily assented, but issued orders that boats, and every attention and facility should be afforded, to enable the colonel to travel to Rangoon in a manner suitable to his office, May 14th.

THE ISLE OF JUAN FERNANDEZ, the scene of Robinson Crusoe's romantic adventures, was colonized,

1837 (being then uninhabited), by an American and 300 Sandwich islanders, his followers, on a long lease from the government of Chili, to which the island belongs.

INDIA-RUBBER CLOTHING, 1837.—The india-rubber tree, or caoutchou, is abundant in Brazil; and a century ago, the Mexicans used its inspissated juice in the manufacture of sandals, while the Spanish Americans varnished their cloaks with the same, to keep out the rain. In Europe the substance was little used but in the apparatus of surgeons, and for erasing pencil-marks from paper, until an attempt was made, a few years since, to form shoes, and minor articles of apparel of it. In 1837, however, Mr. Mackintosh obtained a patent for the manufacture of great-coats, cloaks, and complete dresses of india-rubber, not composed of the substance alone, but of stuffs properly prepared to receive a lining of it; and so nearly saturated with the caoutchou do such stuffs become, that they are impervious to rain, and extremely durable. As the faculty, however, consider india-rubber clothing to check the perspiration of the body, and to be thus productive of injury, all vestments of 'Mackintosh' materials should be made large, so as not to press the under apparel. The caoutchou clogs will perhaps be found the most useful article of india-rubber dress: no wet can penetrate them. In 1770, a cubical piece of half an inch of india-rubber cost three shillings, and was only to be bought at one or two shops in London: now it is imported by tons, and sells at about fourpence the pound.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER MAHMUD II., KHAN.—Bairacter Pacha, head of the turbulent janizaries who had raised Mahmud to the throne, 1808, supposed he could reduce his corps to obedience as easily as he had roused them to rebellion; but they rose upon him in great force, and the frantic wretch,

after murdering Mustafa IV., the ex-sultan, blew himself into the air by means of gunpowder, with several of his followers, in the house where his enemies had attacked him. Mahmud retained the throne, by pacifying the janizaries, and in 1809 made peace with England. After the war with

Austria had been resumed, Turkey lost Silistria, Schumla, and Varna, 1810; and in 1811, Kutusov having compelled Ahmed, the Turkish general, to capitulate, with his whole army, a peace was concluded, by which Bessarabia (one of the most fertile districts in Europe), with a great part of Moldavia, were ceded to Russia. To this disgraceful treaty succeeded a period of intestine commotion, more fatal than war to the Ottoman empire. The defection of Albania, 1820, under Ali Pacha, had deprived the Porte of her best infantry; and the English, with a sympathizing, but then questionable policy, which seemed more regardful of Russian interests than of Grecian emancipation, encouraged, in 1821, that agitation which at length effected the dismemberment of Greece from Turkey, and caused the ruin of the Turkish navy. In 1825, Mahmud made his grand *coup d'état* in the destruction of the janizaries, who, like the Roman prætorian guard, had so long acted as dictators of the empire; and the Turkish nation was still in the stupefaction which follows such catastrophes, when its whole energies became aroused to meet a Russian invasion, 1828. An enormous army of veterans was arrayed against the Turks, commanded by Wittgenstein, and animated by the presence of their emperor; to which the sultan had nothing but raw and undisciplined levies to oppose, without one officer who had even a name in Europe. The Russians, however, had no sooner laid siege to Varna, than the Asiatic cholera appeared in their ranks, and a precipitate retreat was commenced. The sick were left to perish on the roads; and from the total want of forage, above 20,000 horses were lost. Diebitsch took the command of the Russians in the campaign of 1829; and having surrounded and almost killed to a man the main Turkish army under Retschid Pacha, entered Adrianople. The pestilence now burst forth again with fury: the Russian officers and soldiers were

dying by hundreds; and had the pacha of Scutari, who was marching upon their flank at the head of 30,000 men, arrived a week earlier, the Russians must all have found their graves on the scene of their triumph. The consternation at Constantinople, caused by the proximity of the Russians, was increased by a conspiracy of the surviving friends of the janizaries; and the sultan sent off an ambassador to Adrianople, to obtain peace on any terms. A treaty was accordingly concluded in September, and a contest closed, in which the Russians alone had lost 150,000 men.

A brief period of tranquillity ensued, but only to make more striking a calamity equal in extent to any former visitation upon Mahmud. Mehemet Ali, pacha of Egypt, had for many years displayed an inclination to scorn the decrees of the Porte; and in 1833, on being required by the sultan to refrain from warring with the pacha of Syria, he boldly declared himself independent sovereign of Egypt. (The issue will be found in the article *Revolt of Egypt*.) Mehemet Ali, however, was not recognised by any of the European powers; so that his independence was a mere profession, beyond the circumstance of his being allowed to pay a certain annual tribute to the sultan for both Egypt and Syria, in the manner of a conquered country, in lieu of receiving a stipend from the Porte, and accounting for the proceeds of his pachalic. The remainder of Mahmud's reign was passed in comparative peace, and just as he was threatened by a fresh encroachment on the part of the rebellious pacha, against whom he urgently appealed to England, his ancient ally, for aid, death put a period to his fears (aged 54) 1839.

The political character of Mahmud will be estimated with difficulty. The first Turk gifted with extensive views of policy, he laboured to liken his people to the other nations of the civilised world, and risked his sincerity as a Moslim by

supplanting the unimportant practices of his faith with Christian usages. Bells, hitherto disgusting to the followers of the prophet, Mahmud introduced about his palace; the Ottoman costume was laid aside among his soldiery for the European military habit; insurance companies were permitted as a guard against fire, in contempt of one of the greatest doctrines of the Islam, *predestination*,—which made it sinful to provide against such contingencies. The immolation of the janizaries at once displayed both Mahmud's energy of mind, and the ready obedience he could exact from the bulk of his people; and, far from having loosened his hold upon their affections by so many previous innovations, this last daring reform shows him to have had their unvarying and unqualified support. That his empire declined in power, notwithstanding his vigorous attempts to give it stability, is to be attributed to the disturbed state of continental affairs throughout his reign, Europe's varying policy, and, above all, that defection of allies of which Mahmud had such good cause to complain.

The personal character of Mahmud was considerably opposed to that we might expect in the intrepid and energetic reformer of his country; for while, as the latter, he was stern, and resolved, to a degree of actual ferocity, he was all gentleness and elegance in his general intercourse with both his court and foreign visitors thereto. 'His features,' observes Miss Pardoe, who was at Constantinople in 1837; 'were good and strongly marked: his eye bright and piercing. As in Japan the popular belief is firm that the sovereign never dies, so, in Turkey, the monarch is never permitted to think he can grow old. Never did potentate lend himself to the delicious cheat more lovingly than did sultan Mahmud, who, with all his energy, was the victim of the most consummate personal vanity. What will John Bull say to a Turkish emperor who painted white and red, and who underwent all the

anxieties of a costly toilet daily? Think of the immolator of the janizaries, the reformer of a mighty empire, as a consumer of cosmetics, and as a sacrificing high-priest at the altar of self-adornment! I saw him on horseback; and he sat in his saddle with a gentlemanlike ease. In his fez he wore an aigrette of diamonds, sustaining a beautiful cluster of peacocks' feathers. An ample blue cloak was flung gracefully across his shoulders, the collar of which was one mass of jewels; and on the third finger of his left hand glittered the largest brilliant I ever remember to have seen.'

FRANCE DURING THE THREE DAYS. —We have shown, in the previous reign (page 307), that king Charles X., in his zeal to restore the religious and other institutions which had been maintained in his country up to the time of the revolution, had permitted his injudicious ultra-tory ministers, at the head of whom was prince Polignac, to publish, after some little hesitation, three ordinances, for which the minds of a people, accustomed for nearly half a century to the free enjoyment of opinion on every subject, were wholly unprepared. At an early hour on the morning of Monday, July the 26th, 1830, the obnoxious documents received that announcement from the government press, which admitted of no recall. While most of the inhabitants of Paris were yet asleep, the 'Bulletin des Lois' and the 'Moniteur' already exhibited, in imperishable typography, those mandates which were to prove the signals of a new revolution—swifter, and, *ceteris paribus*, more sweeping in its *modus operandi* than the former. The *comte de Chabrol-Volvic*, the prefect of the Seine, was astounded on seeing them about five o'clock in the morning, in the former of these publications. He had entertained no apprehension of any thing of the sort; having in fact, like other deputies, received his letter of summons to the deliberations of the chamber only on

the evening before. Marshal Marmont himself, commandant of the Parisian district, who was destined to act so conspicuous a part in the subsequent events of the week, had as yet received no intimation of those measures on the part of his master, in the consequences of which he was to be so seriously involved. He was at the royal palace at St. Cloud when M. de Komicrowski, one of his aides-de-camp, having just been informed of the publication of the ordinances by an officer in the guards, came to him with the news as he sat at breakfast. The marshal's instant exclamation was, that it was not possible the report could be true. He then sent Komicrowski to the duc de Duras, to ask him for the 'Moniteur;' but the duke stated that nobody but the king had yet had a copy. About half-past eleven Marmont set out for Paris, not having yet been able to obtain a sight of the newspaper. M. de Guise, chief of battalion, was with him at his house in the capital, when he first cast his eyes over the impatiently sought-for pages. After perusing them, he left home to go to the Institute, with the intention of returning thence to St. Cloud. Here he met his friend, M. Arago. 'Well,' said he to that scientific person, 'you perceive things are proceeding as I had foreseen. The ministers have driven matters to extremities. You, however, have only to mourn in your capacity of a citizen and good Frenchman; but how much greater cause have I to lament, who, as a soldier, shall perhaps be obliged to throw away my life for acts which I have consistently opposed!' M. Bayeux, advocate-general of the royal court, whose situation might have seemed to have entitled him to an early communication of their intentions by the ministers, only heard of the publication of the ordinances about noon. The intelligence reached him at his own house by the ordinary channels. He immediately proceeded to the Palais de Justice, expecting to find that some

especial instructions had been left there for him: but there was not a line. With such extraordinary and unaffected unconsciousness of the result that would follow what they were doing, did the cabinet go forward with an enterprise that all cool and rational persons saw, from the acknowledged condition of the public mind, to be one of actual madness! While trampling under foot the constitution which had been solemnly granted by Louis XVIII., they thought a breach of faith so manifestly flagrant, a matter too trifling to be noticed by the most fickle and uncertain people in the whole world; and no proof of this thoughtless conduct could be more convincing, than their thus leaving the ordinances to find their own way to the other high authorities, as in the ordinary routine of unimportant state communications.

The news of the appearance of the ordinances spread among the general public with a slower progress than it might be supposed so extraordinary an event would have commanded. But the fact is, that the 'Moniteur' is but little read in Paris, save by those immediately connected with the government. In the course of the day, however, the paper was seen and eagerly perused by great numbers of persons in many of the principal cafés; and the first mob of the commonalty noticed was at about two in the afternoon, near the Palais Royal, when the chief newspaper editors had been seen to go into and return from a house, where a remonstrance had been hastily prepared for their signature. At four o'clock this concourse appeared suddenly strongly excited against the gendarmes about the spot, and began assailing them, not only with cries, but with stones. The soldiers, however, as yet kept their stations, without making any attempt to drive back the populace. In the evening, about eight o'clock, a carriage was stopped by the mob, with the expectation of its being that of

M. Polignac; but, luckily for the premier, it was not his, and, that minister being still at St. Cloud, an attack was made only on the windows of his residence in the capital, which, by ten o'clock, could not boast an unsparred pane. In the course of that night the people also assailed the Hotel de Finance in the Rue de Rivoli, and one or two other public buildings; but the damage was still, by the vigilance of the gendarmes, confined to the windows. The next dawn ushered in the first of the THREE DAYS, to which the epithet 'glorious' has been since attached by the sentimental, émeute-loving, French; but as it would fill a volume to record all the movements and counter-movements of mob and soldiery during that brief period, we must content ourselves with a mere outline of proceedings.

The days were Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, the 27th, 28th, and 29th of July. The main portion of Tuesday passed away without any especial overt acts. The streets were crammed with mob; and not the least noisy among the crowds were the printers and compositors of the now suppressed journals, who formed an active body of inciters to violence. The appearance of the military towards evening, enabled the storm which had for so many hours been brewing, to burst forth. Attacks were made from the tops of gateways and houses on the troops with ponderous missiles, the latter were compelled to fire, and numerous lives were speedily lost. The streets were, however, at length cleared; and when the military returned, after this duty, to their barracks, marshal Marmont, as commander of Paris, wrote a letter to king Charles, congratulating him on the restoration of tranquillity. So little had the monarch apprehended any thing of disturbance, that he had been all the morning pursuing his favourite diversion of the chase; and so alike unexpectant of a rise were the ministry, that they had taken no

steps whatever for strengthening the garrison of the capital. They endeavoured, vainly enough, when the fight of the evening had commenced, to stay the commotion by an ordinance which declared Paris in a state of siege. The friends of order were soon satisfied that the triumph of the royalists was delusive; for scarcely had the troops withdrawn (now nearly dark), when every lamp and most of the windows in Paris were broken; the streets were barricaded in all parts, by overturning carts, &c., in lines across them; arms were seized from the gunsmiths' shops, the theatres, and even from the police stations; and at length the arsenal and powder-magazine were resigned to the insurgents. It is clear that the citizens were now uniting to second the violent intentions of the populace, and to bring on a sanguinary struggle in the morning.

At length that morning (Wednesday, the second day,) dawned; and marshal Marmont beheld with alarm the tri-color flag, the banner of revolution, waving from the towers of the cathedral de Notre Dame, and the preparations that had been made during the night, on every side, for an obstinate resistance. He instantly sent off a messenger to the king, with a letter, recommending to his majesty and the ministers measures of conciliation; but as, after waiting two hours, he received no reply, he prepared to act against the insurgents, as directed by his previous instructions. Dividing his force into four columns, he ordered them to make circuits through the principal districts occupied by the barricaded mobs, with a view of clearing the streets, as on the preceding evening; and the issue was a series of the most sanguinary conflicts, in all of which the soldiers were beaten. Of course this arose from the manifest reluctance of the troops of the line to fire upon their countrymen: some of them positively refused to act at all: and, in many instances, parties of eight and ten of them at a time walked over to

the ranks of the insurgents, and actually joined them in firing upon their own recent associates! When evening closed, the faithful portion of king Charles's army had been sorely beaten at every point; and, what added to the misery of those devoted soldiers,—kept to their duty as they had been by the higher sentiments of their leader, marshal Marmont—no provision was made for their comfortable refreshment after the toils and exposures of the day—while all the houses in Paris were freely thrown open to the insurgents, who were abundantly supplied with every thing they required.

The curiosity of the reader will have been already sufficiently excited, to inquire what the devoted monarch and his immediate family had been doing at St. Cloud, while these dreadful scenes were enacting in the capital. It was but a hasty imitation of the terrific passages at Versailles and in the same capital, during the Great Revolution—wave indeed of that same convulsion as was this 'three days' *émeute*. M. de Peyronnet, one of the ministers, acknowledges in print, that he saw the king while he was at St. Cloud, in the early part of Wednesday; but that he held no conversation with his majesty on the events which had taken place in the capital. He rather singularly excuses himself for not having felt it his responsible duty to tell the king in how dangerous a state Paris was, by affirming that, even so late as eight o'clock in the evening, he was not himself in possession of any positive information on that head. (St. Cloud is almost a suburb of Paris.) Marshal Marmont alone, he says, had communicated to him a few particulars, the statement of which was mingled with expressions of hope: 'he could not therefore venture to give the king any details, without the risk of committing errors.' Marmont, however, as we have already said, had himself despatched a letter to his majesty in the morning of the day alluded to by

the minister; and the king had also received written reports from prince Polignac, which he had with his own hand answered—so that there could be no real ignorance of the state of things on his majesty's part. One of these reports was conveyed to St. Cloud by M. de Komicrowski, before-named; who states that, having been introduced into the royal closet, he put into his majesty's hands the marshal's despatch, and verbally gave him an account of the condition in which things were, remarking that it demanded a prompt determination. He added, 'shots were even fired at me, as the messenger to your majesty, as I passed through Passy; not by the populace, but by persons of a superior class. The king replied that he would read the despatch; and I withdrew to await his orders. At the end of twenty minutes I was called again into the closet; where the king, without giving me anything written, charged me to tell the marshal *tenir bien* (to hold out well), to re-unite his forces on the Carrousel, and the Place Louis Quinze, and to act with masses. He repeated this last expression twice. The duchess de Berri and the dauphin (the due d'Angoulême) were present while this passed; but they said nothing.' According to baron Langon, the king had, on the Tuesday, after returning from the hunt, which he had pursued with great spirit, dined with a good appetite, and had his usual whist party in the evening. The duchess de Berri was earnest in exhorting the premier (one of the party) not to be bent from the course of policy he had entered upon,—but, at any cost, to suppress the insurrection. The dauphin, however, expressed considerable uneasiness at the symptoms of disaffection which had even already been manifested by the troops of the line. The same personage also tells us that this evening was likewise spent by the king as usual; and that his majesty even gave orders for another hunting-party on the morrow. He was to

have hunted this day, it seems, in the wood of Fontainebleau ; but it was thought expedient in the morning to counteract the directions that had been given to that effect. King Charles and his court had been, in truth, in a state of complete delusion, either real or affected, up to a late hour on the night of Wednesday. Thirty-eight gentlemen had dined at the table of the chief officers of the household that day, and had joined the royal assembly in the evening, as usual, when the king played at cards ; but his majesty could not induce (when urged on the matter by the dauphin—one, from his long career of risks and sufferings, who may be truly pronounced 'non ignarus mali,') a single person in the apartment to venture into Paris, and examine the state of affairs. The dauphin, however, privately despatched one in whom he could confide, to the capital ; but when that messenger had made a faithful report of the irresolution of the regiments of the line, the only result was an order for the assembling at St. Cloud, at daybreak on the following morning (Thursday), of four companies of the body-guard, and of the battalion of students of the academy of St. Cyr with their school battery of guns, which were brought from Courbevoie. In the course of Wednesday also, a Madame de Maillé, actuated by loyalty, conceived the plan of sending her son, disguised as a servant, to St. Cloud, that he might inform king Charles with his own lips of the actual state of things in Paris—it being the general opinion of the quiet citizens that his majesty was being purposely kept by the ministers in gross ignorance of the truth. The young man, after encountering numerous dangers, at last arrived at the palace ; when, there being no reason for any longer preserving his incognito, he made known his real condition in life, and the object of his visit to St. Cloud. He, however, found there was still an obstacle and bar to his access to the royal presence. The peer in wait-

ing informed him that the attire wherein he had come, made it impossible that he could be presented to his majesty ; that it was by neglect of such points of etiquette that the former revolution had been brought about ; and that, in consequence, the king had commanded that no person should be permitted to appear in his presence, except in full dress. Extravagantly and almost incredibly absurd as this punctiliousness was at such a season, there is nothing in what has been related which is not fully borne out by other accounts we have of the last hours of Charles X.'s infatuated court.

The 'glorious third,' Thursday, at length arrived. The dawn disclosed the promise of a beautiful day ; and the heavens being then lightly streaked with clouds, it seemed as if the heat would not be so oppressive as it had been on the preceding one. The tocsin of revolution had ceased but about an hour, when its sounds were again heard ; not, as before, filling the air with its clang alone, but mingled with the martial noise of drums beating the *reveille*. The tread of multitudes hurrying to their several gathering-places, and their repeated cries of 'aux armes !' soon added still more tumultuous echoes to this contending din. Arrangements had been made during the night for giving the advantages of organization and discipline to the popular movement ; and several military characters of distinction had consented to place themselves at its head. Of these, generals Gerard and Dubourg were the two most eminent. Though marshal Marmont must have been convinced, by the mortifying failure that had followed each of his manœuvres on the previous day, that no purpose was to be attained by again sending forth his troops, either to march up and down the streets, or to endeavour to occupy insulated positions in the more distant parts of the city, he had told the ministers, at an interview in the night, that he could hold out for thirty days in the

position she intended to occupy. This would afford time, he considered, for bringing together whatever reinforcements might be deemed requisite; and orders were in fact despatched by prince Polignac to Luneville and St. Omer, for the troops composing the camps at those places to come to Paris by forced marches, and to Vincennes, for the instant transportation thither of the artillery. The royal troops, therefore, marched to their remaining positions at daylight; and the only change of the marshal's plan was, that his men were now to stand wholly on the defensive. The battle commenced in the neighbourhood of the two palaces. The first assailants of the royalists had stationed themselves on the quays Malaquais and Voltaire, on the south bank of the river, and in the rue du Bac; and from these places they kept up a loose fire across the water, upon the Tuileries and Louvre. The conflict here, however, was far from being characterized by the vivacity which the encounters of the preceding day had in general displayed. It was a hotter and sterner war which raged in the rue St. Honoré. Into this street chiefly the bands from the faubourgs (as the *suburbs* of Paris are called, just as Lambeth, Walworth, Kennington, Newington, Whitechapel, the Regent's-park, &c., are the faubourgs of London and Westminster,) seem to have poured themselves, by its numerous cross streets; and other captains besides the distinguished military class before-mentioned, appeared to put themselves at the head of these civic columns, and to lead them on to the charge. These were the pupils of the celebrated Polytechnic school, wherein politics and military tactics were then taught, to the exclusion of religion and ethics; and sixty of its youths had early in the morning scaled its walls, and hastened to take part in the fight for 'liberty.' Throughout the sequel of the combat, these tyros, who had, on the strength of their military education, assumed rather than been elect-

ed to places of command among the insurgents, were to be seen, mounted commonly on white horses, wherever danger was most rife, or combined science and daring were most needed for the execution of any enterprise or manœuvre of peculiar difficulty or importance. In the course of the morning, the marshal, hoping to stop the effusion of blood, issued a proclamation for a suspension of hostilities; but when the person sent to announce the truce to the heads of the insurgents, reached the rue de la Paix, and explained the object of his mission, he was unceremoniously assaulted and slain by the people. We have, however, agreed to be brief regarding so afflicting a condition of things. Several of the hitherto protected (garrisoned) edifices of the government and nobility fell into the hands of the insurgents; and the palace of the archbishop of Paris was not spared. A report had been purposely spread, that a number of priests, who had taken refuge therein, had fired from the windows upon the people; and this fiction fully served the purpose for which it was invented, namely, to turn the fury of the mob upon the clergy. The palace was no sooner entered, than the work of indiscriminate destruction began. Papers, books in gorgeous bindings, the sumptuous furniture, and other articles of use and ornament, with which the archiepiscopal residence had been filled, were scattered about, torn piecemeal, and ejected from the windows into the river. At length the Louvre and the Tuileries were the determined objects of siege, the Polytechnic pupils being now chief in command. While the fight was about those palaces, two regiments of the line unfixed their bayonets, and went over to the rebels in a body; whereupon the populace, thus unexpectedly reinforced, rushed through the gap opened to them by the defection of their new allies, carried the Louvre, and then the Tuileries by storm, and soon after opened from those posi-

tions a terrible fire on the columns of the royal army beneath. Upon this new attack, the soldiers reeled; and their assailants no sooner observed them waver, than, charging them with all the impetuosity in their power, they compelled them to a precipitate retreat. This great success would, one might suppose, have put an end to the conflict, by consummating the triumph of the popular arms; but more blood was still to be shed. The precipitate rout of the royal forces made it impossible for the commander-in-chief to send intimation of the fact even to the posts at the Bank, in the rue St. Honoré, or at the Palais Royal; and the detachments occupying these stations, entirely ignorant of what had taken place, kept up the fight with undiminished vigour for a considerable time. In the rue St. Honoré in particular, the combat continued to be of the most sanguinary description; and when the soldiers who had maintained the corner houses of the rues Rohan and de l'Echelle, were at last compelled to yield to the overwhelming numbers of their opponents, they were ferociously massacred by the insurgents on throwing down their arms—'a fate (writes a somewhat cool eye-witness, in his *'Evénemens Militaires.'*) from which their gallantry, if nothing else, should have saved them.' It was about half-past three in the afternoon when the last of the military posts in the interior of the city surrendered; and by four o'clock the whole of Paris was in the undisturbed possession of the inhabitants, with not a soldier to be seen in its streets. So terminated 'The Glorious Three Days'; and, at the cost of 4000 lives, the ordinances were rejected, the ministry dismissed, and the family of Charles X. deprived of the throne.

The ministers had spent the night of Wednesday in the Tuileries, and had only quitted that palace just previously to the moment of its sudden capture. Marmont, with his staff, had remained at head-quarters; and

he, such was the impetuosity with which the invading multitude rushed forward, was thrown from his horse in the confusion (having only one arm), and narrowly escaped on foot with his life. The king had summoned a council at St. Cloud when he knew the worst, hastily revoked the ordinances, and changed his advisers,—but all was now too late. The people, having gained the day, were resolved on selecting a new dynasty for themselves; and their choice fell upon the duc d'Orléans, who, after holding the nominal post of lieutenant-general of the kingdom for a short time, was declared sovereign 'of the French,' by the style and title of Louis Philippe I. The deposed monarch, while this was arranging by his enemies, set off privately from St. Cloud, and thence to Rambouillet; and when his purpose was known, far from finding any opposition on the part of the people, they arrived in crowds to hasten his departure—which they joyously saw him take, after he had signed a formal act of abdication in favour of his grandson, 'Henry Cinq.'

[The subsequent reign of Louis Philippe I. will be found among the parallel ones of Queen Victoria's period of rule.]

PORTUGAL UNDER PEDRO IV., &c.
—John VI., who died 1826, left by his will his daughter, Isabel, regent; and she administered the kingdom in the name of her brother, Dom Pedro, emperor of Brazil, now Pedro IV. Pedro immediately (in Brazil) granted Portugal a constitution, which established two chambers (one of hereditary peers) and in other respects resembled the French charter. On May 2d, however, he abdicated the Portuguese throne in favour of his daughter, Doña Maria de Gloria, (he remaining king during her minority,) on condition of her marrying her uncle, Dom Miguel. But a party, secretly aided by Spain, aimed at the overthrow of the constitution granted by Pedro, though it had been sworn to by the young queen, the two

chambers, by all the magistrates, and by Dom Miguel himself. The marquises of Chaves and Abrantes appeared at the head of an army of insurgents, and Spain assembled considerable forces on the Portuguese frontier; but Portugal having appealed to England for aid, 15,000 British troops were landed in Lisbon, and the insurrection was completely put down. In July, 1827, Pedro appointed his brother Miguel lieutenant and regent of the kingdom. The prince accordingly left Vienna, (where he had resided since his exile,) and passing through Paris and London, arrived at Lisbon, Feb. 1828; soon after which, in the presence of the two chambers, he took the oath to observe the charter. But the apostolical party, to whom the disposition and temper of the regent were well known, began openly to speak of Miguel's right to the throne; and it was determined that the regent should go to Villaviciosa, on the Spanish frontier, where he might have the support of the troops under the marquises of Chaves, to overthrow the constitutional government. This project was frustrated by the decision of Mr. Lamb, the British minister; who not only counteracted the order for the departure of the British troops then in Portugal, but prevented the payment of a loan made to Dom Miguel under the guarantee of the English government. At last, after dissolving the Cortes, who were opposed to his designs, and seeing the departure of the British troops, Miguel issued a decree in his own name, convoking the ancient Cortes of Lamego. Part of the army, however, were not favourable to this proceeding, and on May 18th, Dom Pedro and the charter were proclaimed by the garrison of Oporto; which, being increased by other garrisons, marched against Lisbon. This force was defeated in June; and the constitutionalists either forced their way to the Spanish frontier, or embarked for Great Britain. Miguel now turned all his attention

to the consolidation of his power; was declared by the Cortes lawful sovereign of Portugal and Algarve, on the ground that Dom Pedro had forfeited all right to the crown for himself and his heirs, by becoming emperor of Brazil; and established a special commission to try all who had taken part in the Oporto insurrection. The prisons were consequently crowded with persons of all ranks; and foreign countries were filled with Portuguese emigrants. An expedition was likewise sent to those islands which refused to acknowledge his authority; and all were reduced, with the exception of Terceira, where a regency, appointed by Dom Pedro, 1830, consisting of Palmella, Villafior, and Guerreiro, was installed. Meanwhile Portugal was a prey to political commotion. Insurrections broke out everywhere, trade was suspended, and the relations with foreign powers were seriously compromised. In consequence of some acts of violence against British subjects, and a refusal of redress, the English government sent a fleet to the Tagus; but on its appearance before Lisbon, May, 1831, the concessions required were made. In July, in consequence of similar demands of the French government not being complied with, a French squadron forced the passage of the Tagus, and took possession of the Portuguese fleet; which was not restored until full satisfaction was given, besides an indemnity for the expenses incurred by the expedition.

It was at this juncture that Dom Pedro, by a revolution, was driven from his throne of Brazil, and came to England. Being thus at leisure to push the claims of his daughter, he planned a rising of such Portuguese as were in his favour, and, at the head of certain naval forces, arrived off Terceira, February, 1832. In the following June, an expedition, 10,000 strong, sailed from St. Michael's in the Azores (which had declared for Pedro), and on the 10th of July landed near Oporto, which they took

without opposition. The Miguelite forces laid siege to Oporto, but were defeated in several engagements by the troops of Pedro, chiefly Englishmen. After an investment of several months, during which the garrison was reduced to the greatest extremities, and the wealthy merchants in the city were almost ruined by the wanton devastation committed in their wine-vaults by Pedro's troops, an expedition was fitted out by means of a loan raised in England; and Dom Pedro, encouraged by a recent victory won by commodore Napier over the fleet of Dom Miguel, sailed with part of his forces to Lisbon, of which he took possession with comparatively little trouble. He then established a permanent government, and shortly after sent to England for the young queen, who was received by the nation with every demonstration of joy. Meantime, the army of Pedro prosecuted its success. Early in 1834 the strong town of Leiria was taken by marshal Saldanha, his general; and in April, a Spanish army, under general Rodil, entered Portugal for the purpose of seizing the person of the infante, Don Carlos, the pretender to the Spanish crown, who, with a few followers, had crossed over the frontier, and taken refuge in Portugal. On the approach of the Spanish troops, the important town of Almeida declared for the young queen; and shortly after, a treaty was signed at Lisbon between England, France, Spain, and Portugal, for the pacification of the peninsula, by the expulsion of both Don Carlos and Dom Miguel. On the 26th of May, 1832, after the surrender of Santarem and other places, Dom Miguel was obliged to capitulate, and sign the convention of Evora; and on being permitted to leave Portugal, he embarked for Genoa. This event ended the struggle; and the young queen (Doña Maria da Gloria-Jane-Carlotta-Leopoldine-Isidora-da Cruz-Francesco-Xavier-da Paula-Micäela-Gabriela-Rafüela-Louisa-Gonzaga) was firmly seated

on the throne, the regency being conferred upon her father. One of the first acts of Pedro's administration was the suppression of the monasteries; another was the partial abolition of paper-money, and the formation of a metallic currency. That prince, however, had scarcely been regent a month, when the declining state of his health induced him to resign; and the Cortes thereupon declaring the young queen of age, she took the oath according to the charter, and assumed the full exercise of royal authority. Dom Pedro died on the 22d of September, 1834. In January, 1835, Doña Maria married duke Augustus of Leuchtenberg, who dying shortly after, she, in April, 1836, espoused prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, by whom she has two sons. The reign of Doña Maria da Gloria II. has alone been distinguished by the collision of two leading political parties; the one supporting Dom Pedro's charter of 1826, and the other calling for a yet more liberal one; if we except the dispute with the Spanish government, concerning the navigation of the Douro. Espartero, the Spanish regent, threatened the Portuguese with an invasion, 1840, if that river were not left open to Spanish vessels in twenty-five days from the date of his proclamation. The conveyance of Spanish wheat down the Douro, to be bonded at Oporto for exportation, had been a principal stipulation in a treaty between the two countries; but as it was a concession universally characterized as ruinous to the agricultural interests within the influence of the river, it met with very general opposition from the Portuguese nation. The matter, however, was ultimately amicably settled. The first outbreak of the political feud was early in 1836; when the charter of Dom Pedro was proclaimed by the army under general Saldanha and baron Setubal. The antagonist, or democratic party, headed by Bomfim, Das Antas, and the viscount Sa da Bandeira, were soon in the field with the

liberal forces ; the queen was held as a hostage by the latter ; and Saldanha and his friends being defeated, all Pedroites were banished. The liberals subsequently framed the constitution now known as that of September, 1838, and promulgated it ; by which two chambers were established, both elective, and no citizen was to be an elector, unless possessed of 120*l.* per annum (80,000 reis) in land. This democratic arrangement endured the usual short space of peninsular constitutions, namely, till February, 1842 ; when the re-adoption of Dom Pedro's charter was one morning announced to the people of Lisbon, before they were out of their beds, by a discharge of ordnance from the castle of St. George—Costa Cabral, an ex-minister, having some days before proclaimed it at Oporto. Though the radical ministry, to which the duke of Palmella had lent his name on the spur of the moment, attempted to get up a popular resistance, and to arm the national guard, Sa da Bandeira, who had acted as minister of war, soon lost the castle, and the troops even fired on their former champion, count Das Antas, who luckily escaped unhurt. The queen was hereupon made by her discomfited ministry, to proclaim an irrevocable *resistance* to the charter of her father on the 7th, and, perhaps somewhat less reluctantly, on the 10th of February, by a new ministry, an irrevocable *fidelity* to the same. The defeated party retired with precipitation ; the counter-revolution was accomplished ; and soon after, it was agreed to have a coalition cabinet of six, the three members of the former one being, Palmella, Da Bandeira, and senhor Da Fonseca Magalhaes, and Costa Cabral being one of the latter. It is needless to say that the titled classes, who were thus restored to their hereditary privileges, and the military chieftains who supported Dom Pedro, would be, with the royal house, the benefited parties in the state ; and that the change was the happy result of the restoration of

conservative influence in England. The same cause produced the reduction of the French army, and suspended the absurd military works of Paris ; so sensitive have nations, like individuals, become, in these high-strained intellectual days, to the good and evil doings of their neighbours. In the Portuguese change, the king-consort took no part ; and even when offered the post of commander-in-chief of the army, he declined it. The chief bad feature in the movement is that it was effected by the military ; a dangerous example to every other state.

The colonies of Portugal, now reduced from their originally paramount number to the Azore isles, the Madeira isles, the isles of Cape Verd, the town of Goa in India, and that of Macao in China, have been dreadful sufferers by the constant revolutions of the mother-country. To such a state of want and misery have the islanders of the Atlantic been reduced, that they have in numerous instances been compelled to emigrate, and beg their bread in foreign states ; and poor-houses everywhere take the places of those of the once competent and opulent. To add to this distress, the Madeira isles were visited in October, 1842, with the most violent rains ; the sea constantly swelled and made inroads ; and the inundation of all the land was apprehended. The city of Funchal especially suffered ; and so great a volume of water fell from the clouds on the 24th, that, had it lasted an hour more, two-thirds of that ancient town would have ceased to exist. There were no less than seven ships of various nations wrecked on the coasts of the isles during that month, and the crews of three were lost.

SPAIN UNDER THE REGENCY OF DONA MARIA CHRISTINA. — ISABEL II. MARIA ascended the throne, in defiance of the Salique law (as has been shown), on the decease of her father, Ferdinand VII., 1833, she being then an infant of three years. Her mother, Maria Christina, daughter of Francis I. of Sicily, an am-

bitious woman, was appointed regent of the kingdom, and guardian of the young queen till her minority should expire; and she had scarcely undergone the ceremonial of inauguration, when Don Carlos, brother of her deceased consort, landed from England in the Basque provinces, where the people rose in a mass in his favour. The Salique law, instituted by Philip V., had been in force in Spain more than a century; and as Charles IV. had ratified it as the only rule of succession, his son, Don Carlos, who was born before any intention of altering its provisions existed, had, in law, the same claim to its benefits, as his brother Ferdinand. As not only the inhabitants of the northern parts (Spaniards completely separated in habits, manners, and privileges, from the rest of their countrymen), but the aristocracy and clergy were in the prince's favour, he assumed, at the general request of his partisans, the title of Carlos V., and was soon at the head of a very considerable army, consisting of native mountaineers, regular troops, and English and German auxiliaries. A book of ordinary size would ill contain the narrative of the protracted guerilla warfare of seven years, which ensued between the Christinos (as the queen-regent's party were called) and the Carlists, or friends of the prince; no one year showing even a progress to superiority on either side. Yet the most desperate conflicts every now and then occurred; and no quarter being given either by Christino or Carlist, the most cruel reprisals were taken, especially by the Christinos. The latter, on one occasion, put to death even the grandmother and infant children of a Carlist general, who had been unusually successful against them; and it was a common thing for thirty, forty, and sometimes 100 prisoners to be selected by lot, and shot in cold blood. The chief leaders of Don Carlos, Cevallos, Zumalacarregui, and others, died either on the field of battle, or worn out in his service; and no exertions

were more admirable in his behalf than those of the curate Merino, a clergyman of wealth and devoted loyalty, who for a year or two maintained a Carlist troop, and rarely had any other pillow or bed than his horse's body and the bare earth. The bishop of Leon, too, and a long list of nobles and gentry, acted as ministers and legates for the prince, and supplied money privately for his military and other vast expenses; but the fact of the English government opposing the Carlist insurrection, and even permitting British subjects to form a 'legion,' as it was styled, in aid of the Christinos, prevented any open display on the part of the wealthy and worthy of the Spanish nation, who were favourable, almost without exception, to the succession of Carlos V.

But, to proceed with 'the Succession War.' On the 24th of July, 1834, Christina, the queen-regent, opened in person the session of the Cortes, in compliance with the 'Estatuto Real,' a sort of constitution which she had granted to the nation in the preceding month of April; Martinez de la Rosa being prime minister at the time. Among other measures of importance proposed by the government for the consideration of the Cortes, was a bill for excluding Don Carlos from the throne, which passed both houses without opposition. Shortly after, Martinez de la Rosa, being unable to command a majority in the Cortes, tendered his resignation, which was accepted, and the count of Toreno was appointed in his place. In the mean time Don Carlos maintained the contest in the northern provinces with varying fortunes, and indecisive results; but at the close of the year 1834, the prince's enterprising general, Zumalacarregui, gained some advantages over the queen's forces, and Mina, the celebrated revolutionary leader, was sent against him. The campaign of 1835 proved unfavourable to the queen's cause; the advances of the Carlists towards Castile became more fre-

quent and bold; Zumalacarregui beat in succession the divisions sent against him; and all the resources and skill of Mina were insufficient to check the progress of the enemy. General Valdes, who succeeded Mina in command, was not more fortunate; and the aspect of affairs grew daily worse, when the death of Zumalacarregui, who was killed before Bilbao, June 25, 1835, turned the scale somewhat in favour of the queen. Some time before, and at the instigation of England, a convention had been signed between the generals of the two belligerent parties, agreeing that prisoners should be treated according to the laws of war among civilized nations, instead of being slaughtered in cold blood as they had hitherto been. The ill success of the war, and the weakness and vacillation manifested by the government, occasioned tumultuary risings in various parts of the peninsula, just at the moment of Zumalacarregui's death; and these were only quieted by the dismissal of the Toreno administration, and the appointment of Mendizabal, whose new ultra-radical cabinet began its career with vigour. A levy of 100,000 men was decreed and raised; general Cordova, a young officer of talent, was elevated to the command of the army in the north; an auxiliary legion 8000 strong, recruited in England by English and Irish, and commanded by De Lacy Evans, an Irishman, was added to the army of operations in Biscay; and a new electoral law, the liberty of the press, and the abolition of the monastic orders, were the other prominent measures of the new administration. Every thing promised fair for the queen's party; but as Mendizabal, who relied for support on England in preference to France, (the latter the legitimate and usual prop of the Bourbon house of Spain,) was about to conclude a treaty of commerce with Great Britain, the French government, alarmed at the consequences which the contemplated measure might have on her trade, pro-

tested against it, and became decidedly hostile to the Mendizabal administration. On the 14th of May, 1836, Mendizabal tendered his resignation, and was succeeded by Isturiz. The latter, however, did not remain long in office; for on the evening of the 12th of August, a battalion, commanded by sergeant Garcia, breaking out in rebellion at San Idelfonso, the queen was compelled (so precarious was her power) to sign a decree for the dismissal of the new ministry, and to swear to the constitution of 1812. Meanwhile Espartero, who had succeeded Cordova in command, had obtained some successes over the Carlists, and relieved Bilbao, which the enemy had blockaded. In Catalonia and Lower Aragon, however, the Carlist chief, Cabrera, carried all before him.

In 1837 the Cortes terminated their debates on the constitution of 1812, which the government had submitted to their revision; and on *Sunday*, the 18th of June, a new constitution was publicly sworn to by the queen-regent, now become the mere sport of factions. For two years, however, from that time, the cause of Don Carlos gradually declined. General Leon pressed the Carlist general Elio in Navarre; a great portion of Biscay and Alava were in the hands of Espartero; and the Basques began to be weary of the civil war, which was at last terminated by the convention of Bergard, in August, 1839. But it was not until September, 1840, that the peninsula was completely pacified, by the breaking up of Cabrera's army in Valencia, the taking of Morella by Espartero, and the defection of the Carlist generalissimo, Maroto; the latter, Judas-like, consenting to make the large force under his command desert to the Christino side, on payment of an enormous bribe. Upon the revolt of the Carlist army, Don Carlos and his family were waylaid and seized, and conveyed prisoners of state to Bourges, in France; and the queen-regent, thus being relieved from all further apprehension,

was left at liberty to devise plans for the future management of the kingdom.

No sooner, however, had the pretensions of the rightful heir been put down, than Spain presented to the pitying eyes of Europe another extraordinary spectacle. The exaltados, who had long been the influential faction in the Cortes, headed by the leader of the Christino army, general Espartero, now duke of Victoria (Victory), began to accuse the queen-regent of misgovernment, and disregard for her daughter's education : so grievously indeed, it was alleged, had Doña Maria been neglected, that, though now ten years of age, she could neither read nor write. This singular ignorance was occasioned, it was said, by the queen-regent's immediate friends and associates being persons of low origin ; herself having secretly married, in a few weeks after the decease of her royal husband, one Munoz, a private in the life-guards, whose fine person had captivated her. Various remonstrances on the subject of her partiality for this person having been made in vain to her majesty by the different cabinets which carried on the government of Spain during the civil war, Espartero at length compelled her to acknowledge her secret marriage, and retire with the two children, which were the issue, to France. In October, 1840, therefore, Maria Christina surrendered at Madrid all her powers, as regent, to a new radical ministry, headed by Espartero, assigning as her motive 'the necessities of the country;' and on the next morning she commenced her journey to France, whither 'don Fernand' Munoz, and the two children, had previously repaired.

Of Doña Christina it may be said that, though an ambitious, she was not an intriguing person. After having carried her point in regard to the abolition of the 'Salique law, she even hoped to establish exactly such a government as Don Carlos, whom she had supplanted, would have preferred—namely a monarchical and tory

one. But it was not permitted to one who had trampled on the sacred rights of her husband's brother, and, in that act, those of regal legitimacy, to be any thing but the head of a democratic faction, which, on the first sufficient opportunity, would level all distinctions of rank, and which was alone kept down by the frowns, certainly not by the loyal activity, of the old, and wealthy, and supine nobility. After the capture of Don Carlos, the inhabitants of the Basque provinces, Navarre, and Catalonia, (the battle-field of the Carlists) acknowledged doña Maria, the *fueros*, or prescriptive immunities of the northern Spaniards, having been secured to them ; and peace was once more restored, all but as respects the holding out of some mountaineers for Carlos V.

The manufactures of Spain are far more extensive and valuable than we are accustomed to think them. Woollen cloths are the staple commodity ; and in Valencia more especially, notwithstanding the civil war, the production of them has increased considerably. In 1839, at Alcoy alone, 24,000 pieces of thirty-two varas (yards English, wanting an inch) were made ; which, at 8*s.* 3*d.* the vara, represent a capital of 500,000*l.* The finest qualities of cloth are made in Old Castile, at Segovia, and Avila ; and these, with the lower quality cloths of the two Castiles, Leon, and Estremadura, find a profitable vent everywhere, in and out of Spain ; but the heaviest descriptions, such as those of Aragon, are only suited for Spanish provincial consumption.

THE NETHERLANDS UNDER WILLIAM I.—It has been shown that the son of the stadtholder, William V. (which latter prince had died in exile in England), was called to superintend the republic of the whole Netherlands, 1813, the catholic provinces being now, for the first time since the Reformation, added to the protestant. It had scarcely been found how far the junction of two states, divided as much in manners as in religion, could

be regarded as beneficial, when Napoleon broke from his honourable imprisonment at Elba; and the Belgian or catholic provinces at once became the arena whereon the allies resolved to make the grand struggle for European freedom. Brussels was the rallying point for the enemies of Napoleon; and on the plains of Waterloo, in the vicinity of that city, the glorious victory was obtained, July 18, 1815, which crushed for ever the aggrandizing schemes of French policy. The stadtholder now devoted his utmost energies to the difficult task of bringing into bonds of amity his Belgian and Dutch subjects; and when, to aid his endeavours, the great allied powers consented to erect his state into a kingdom, by the title of that of the United Netherlands, of which he was crowned sovereign as William I., 1815, it must be confessed that he occasioned, by a series of paternal acts, a regard and affection to spring up for him amongst the catholic portion, which could hardly have been anticipated. Brought up in the school of adversity, he had gained a sufficient acquaintance with human nature to know how to rule well, and so as to be beloved; but the opposite tastes of his two sets of subjects—the new portion being in spirit, and almost by birth, Frenchmen and soldiers, and his old people being a peace-loving, and thrifty race—continually defeated his benevolent intentions. At length, on the breaking out of the second French revolution, 1830, the flames spread to the catholic provinces, which were with the speed of lightning in rebellion, and in arms; and the allied powers were compelled to assent to their disunion from the Dutch state, 1831. Under the collective name of Belgium, they received a king of their own; and the Dutch states were confirmed to king William, who was obliged to exchange the title of king of the United Netherlands for that of Holland. It could hardly be expected that the latter, who had laboured so hard and so sincerely for

the benefit of his country, should see this partition of it with patience; but that he should persist in opposing, when opposition must necessarily involve him in worse evils, was unfortunate, and foreign from his known wisdom. It is a mere truism to say that we have a right to do many things which it would still be very imprudent to enforce, and that, in all human affairs, and particularly in all questions of prudence, the first point of consideration is not so much our right to do a thing, as the expediency and consequences of doing it. Here, indeed, is the main difference between duties and rights. In all questions of positive obligation, such as duties of justice, we must do our duty at all events, and in spite of all consequences. But, as regards our rights, the first question is prudence and expediency; and we must enforce them, or forego them, accordingly as the maintenance of them is worth or not worth the cost or consequences. Now we hesitate not a moment in saying that king William, in refusing to evacuate the citadel of Antwerp 1832, in conformity with the terms agreed on by the allied powers, however he might be justified by his rights, which were undoubted, acted with the greatest imprudence, and simply insured, without the slightest accruing benefit to himself, the loss of much life, and the infliction of much human suffering. The French, to compel the evacuation of the citadel for the Belgians, entered Belgium, November 15, 1832, with 70,000 men under marshal Gerard, a large portion of which troops were merely intended to occupy the country round Antwerp; and the citadel was defended by general Chassé for the king of Holland, with 4500 men. The French broke ground on the night of November 29, and on December 24 the citadel surrendered, and the garrison became prisoners of war; the besiegers having lost 200 killed, and 695 wounded, and the Dutch in killed and wounded 560. General Chassé behaved with great

valour, and was eventually left with no roof to protect him; but military men regard the defence as wanting plan, although every Dutchman appeared to do his duty during the contest. Even after the decision of this affair, king William long hesitated to conform to the various stipulations of the allies; but at last matters were accommodated, and the Dutch nation has since again become distinguished for its attention to commerce, and the accumulation of money. In Sept. 1840, on occasion of the probability of a war between France and England, concerning the affairs of Mehemet Ali of Egypt (an issue which would necessarily expose Belgium to difficulty, related as the monarch was by marriage to both the expected belligerent parties, and place Holland once more in jeopardy), king William abdicated the Dutch throne in favour of his son, the prince of Orange, now William II.; and having always been beloved by his people, he retired with their best wishes to private life. Though in his 69th year, the monarch, who had lost his queen, Wilhelmina, daughter of Frederick William II. of Prussia, 1837, entered into a morganatic marriage with Henrietta, countess of Oultremont, February 16, 1841. [The word *morganatic* is derived from the Saxon *morgangina*, 'morning gift,' an ancient law term, signifying the marriage-morning gift, or dowry, of the husband to his bride. As now applied, it denotes the contract entered into, on the morning of marriage, whereby the intended wife consents, being inferior in rank to her intended husband, to forego all claim to his rank, save 'in mensa et thoro;' in token of which she agrees to receive his *left hand*, in lieu of his right hand, in the holy ordinance. The usage is of German origin, and the species of union is called 'a left-handed marriage;' but as the children of such alliances are, though legitimate, as sanctioned by the royal authority, incapable of inheriting land, &c., the universities of Jena and Leipsic have taken great pains to place them on a

par with the issue of right-handed marriages, and occasionally with success.]

SWEDEN UNDER CHARLES XIV. BERNADOTTE.—We have shown, at page 117, that the crown-prince, Charles John Bernadotte, was permitted to ascend the throne on the decease of Charles XIII., 1818. He was crowned at Stockholm and Drontheim (Tronycim) respectively, as sovereign of Sweden and Norway; those two states being regarded as henceforth indissolubly united for ever by the convention of Moss, 1814, though each retains its separate constitution. The rule of Charles XIV., up to the present day (his majesty being, 1843, in his 80th year), has been marked by the uniform and increasing prosperity of the Scandinavian kingdoms. A quarter of a century of peace, and the unceasing attention paid by the king to the cultivation and improvement of the internal resources of his dominions, have in a great measure remedied the accumulation of evils resulting from a long period of misgovernment, domestic broils, and disastrous foreign wars. Notwithstanding the loss of Finland, the commerce of Sweden is now more than double that which it was in 1800; and the opening of the Gotlia canal (1832) has greatly added to the facilities for water-communication. It has been said that a party in the state will attempt, on the demise of the king, to supplant his son Oscar in the succession, and restore the son of Gustavus IV., now a general in the Austrian service; but it is improbable that such an enterprise would be successful. And whatever may be the stability of the present dynasty, the memory of Charles XIV. will be deservedly held in reverence by his subjects in both kingdoms.

The Swedish constitution, after its repeated fluctuations between absolute monarchy and aristocratic predominance, may be considered as having settled, since the last modifications in 1809, into a tolerably fair equilibrium. The crown is declared hereditary in the male line, and the

king is required to profess the Lutheran religion, which is the established creed of the realm. The state-council consists of nine members, who are the privileged advisers of the king, and who must also be Lutherans, and Swedes by birth. The diet, or parliament of the kingdom, in which resides the supreme legislative power, consists, as of old, of the four orders of nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants (landholders who are not noble): the number of members varies considerably. In the house of nobles, the head of each of the 2300 noble families has a seat by right; but seldom more than 400 to 500 attend. The ecclesiastical order (of which the archbishop of Upsal is always president), consists, besides the twelve bishops, of about sixty deputies from the various dioceses. The presidents of the burgher and peasant houses are named by the king, and a small property qualification is required for a deputy: the proper number of burgher representatives is ninety-seven; of whom Stockholm returns ten, Gottenburg three, Norrköping two, and eighty-two other cities and towns each one: the peasant deputies should be 144, returned by different districts; but the full number rarely if ever make their appearance. The expenses of the representatives of the last three classes are partly reimbursed by their constituents; and the civil and military employés of government, far from being ineligible, usually form a large majority of the whole number. The diet meets at Stockholm every fifth year; and the session should close at the end of three months, unless prevented by a press of business.

As respects foreign relations, the Swedes labour to live exclusively in and among and by themselves. Scarcely any strangers are encouraged but the English, whose surgeons are in great request in the Swedish navy; but it would be as well that British gentlemen of that profession should be aware that they will be required

to shave the crews of their respective ships, should they enter the service—an employment for which they may not feel exactly adapted.

EGYPT UNDER MEHEMET ALI.—It was in 1810 that Mahmud II., sultan of Turkey, made Mehemet Ali pacha, or viceroy, over Egypt. Mehemet was born 1769 (in the same year with Wellington and Napoleon), in Albania, of obscure parents, and on some unknown account was adopted by the Turkish governor of Cavale, in Rumelia, as his son. He had scarcely reached thirteen, when the inhabitants of a neighbouring village refused their protector the tribute due to him; and as he had not troops, he could not enforce the payment. 'Give me a dozen troopers and a good horse,' said Ali, 'and I will undertake to get in the impost.' He left with nine soldiers; and having reached the village when the greater part of the rebels were absent at work, he repaired to the mosque, and called for four of the principal inhabitants, to make a proposition. They presented themselves without mistrust; Mehemet took them prisoners, placed them before his troopers, went through the village threatening to kill the prisoners if a single inhabitant made resistance, and arrived thus at Cavale without accident. The four chiefs, feeling confident they would not recover their liberty without they urged that the tribute ought to be paid by their fellow-citizens, employed their influence, and it was soon discharged. This expedition made the name of Mehemet celebrated throughout the country, and procured him a marriage with a wealthy relation of the governor; upon which, having, as all true Turks have, a taste for commerce as well as arms, he entered the tobacco trade, and made therein a large fortune. The conquest of Egypt by the French 1798, took him away from mercantile pursuits; and leaving Cavale at the head of a troop collected by the governor, he soon distinguished himself, and obtained honour from the hands

of the capidaff pacha. In the meantime he studied the tactics of the French army, observed the discipline established by the conquerors, and sought to make himself acquainted with the ideas suggested by Buonaparte upon the importance of the regeneration of Egypt. On the revolt of the Mamluk chiefs in that country, 1809, Ali gained vast reputation by entrapping one of them, whom he had persuaded of his intention to join their cause with his Albanians. Appointing his victim to meet him at a lonely house, where there was little fear of ambush, the latter went thither, like himself, accompanied by only a few troopers; and, during a collation which had been prepared for the pair in a room by themselves, Mehemet rose, seized the unsuspecting Mamluk by the hair, and cutting off his head, threw it out of the window to the troopers who had come with the chief. Alarmed at the sight, the latter took to flight; and the band, which had increased through the reputation of the chief, dispersed as soon as the news of his death spread. For this dexterous piece of villany, and other instances of his daring, the Sultan, though warned by rivals that his popularity in Egypt would end in making him formidable to the Porte, sent Mehemet a firman, 1810, constituting him pacha of Egypt. Thus armed with power, Ali followed up with vigour the war against the Mamluks; but it being clear that no advantage could be gained over a race who constantly avoided coming to a pitched battle, his natural cunning prompted him to temporize, and he accordingly made a treaty of peace with them, whereby they were permitted to hold their district authority, the power of the Schaich-el-belled, or chief of the Mamluks, being vested in his own person. Every one has read of the Moslem St. Barthlemi by which he cut off the deceived beys almost to a man, 1811. (See *Massacre of the Mamluk Beys*.) Once delivered from those thorns in his side, Ali engaged in a war with the

Wahlábcees, a fanatical sect, (see *Rise of the Wahlábcees*), who pretended to restore Islamism to its original purity, and who had just taken Medina. He sent against them his eldest son Tossoun, who, after many victories, died of the plague at Damahour, leaving the army to the command of his brother Ibrahim (born 1796); who, after several campaigns, got possession of and destroyed the Wahlábce capital, Deriaie, 1817, and, it was believed, crushed the sect. It was in 1820 that Ali confided to his third son, Ismael, an expedition against the Nubians; by which he opened to the researches of travellers the countries of the Upper Nile, that had for ages been inaccessible to Europeans. A force of 4000 men, with ten field-pieces, assembled under Ismael at Wady Halfa, on the second cataract, and ascending the river by boats, reached Dongola; whence, on hearing of the approach of the Egyptians, the remnant of the Mamluks (who had retired there after the massacre of 1811), fled to Shendy. The daring tribe of Arabs, however, called Sheygeia, who had strong castles on the hills, and exercised the same power in the regions of the Upper Nile as the Mamluks had done in Egypt, and who, from their predatory habits, were the terror of all the countries between the second cataract and Sennaar, now opposed Ismael's progress; but they were, after several conflicts, compelled to yield their large territory to the conqueror, who, contrary to the usual Turkish practice, protected their women and children from ill usage. Their chiefs afterwards demanded and obtained pardon; and some of them followed Ismael to Sennaar, and proved most useful auxiliaries. The conquests of the Sheygeia country disclosed, for the first time, to the eyes of strangers, the temple and pyramids of Mount Barkal and Napata, the finest monuments of Upper Nubia. From thence Ismael proceeded to Berber, the country of which submitted to him; and while

there, he received the submission of some of the Mamluks beys who had fled to Shendy, to whom he gave assurance of living in peace in Egypt for the rest of their lives. Nimir, melek of Shendy, also came in person to kiss the hand of the conqueror, who arrived in Shendy itself, the capital of Athara, the ancient *isle* of Meroe, so called because it is inclosed by the Nile and other rivers. A succession of Arab meleks or kings had ruled over Athara for nearly two centuries and a half; and in a valley, about twenty miles north of Shendy, Ismael saw the ruins of El Meçaourat, which consist of several temples of small dimensions, connected by galleries and terraces, with a number of small chambers, the whole surrounded by a double inclosure, and believed to have been the Hieropolis, or sacred college of the priests of Meroe. The melek of Halfay, south of Shendy, whose territory is the boundary of Nubia, soon after submitted to Ismael; and he then proceeded into the kingdom of Sennaar, subjugating the country as he went, and staying not until he had reached as far as ten degrees north beyond the capital of Sennaar itself. It was in the summer of 1823 that, sated with conquest, Ismael thought of returning to Egypt; and he had reached Shendy again on his way home, when he had the imprudence to retire with a few attendants to some distance from his camp, to enjoy, it is said, a nocturnal banquet. Melek Nimir, who was watching for an opportunity of revenge, set fire to the hut where the pacha feasted, and to the shrubs and dourra which surrounded it; and the young conqueror thus perished in the flames, at the early age of 23. His mutilated remains were found by the soldiers, and brought back to Cairo; his immediate attendants were massacred, and amongst them the Greek physician of the army, who was first tortured by having all his teeth extracted. Excessive was the grief of Mehemet Ali when he heard of the catastrophe. Notwithstanding the

countries that had been brought under his sway, he regarded the Nubian expedition as that which Moscow had been to Napoleon, and refused all comfort; and much of his subsequent waywardness is believed to have been the result of the shock which the death of his son Ismael occasioned him. The revolt of the Greeks next occupied the troops of Mehemet, under Ibrahim, 1821, in conjunction with those of his master the Sultan; for the Egyptian forces, now trained by and dressed like Europeans, were already sufficiently distinguished from other Turkish armies, to make it evident that Ali was aiming at independence. The greatest excesses were committed by the soldiers under Ibrahim in the Morea; and indeed the miseries they inflicted were the chief cause of that sympathy which induced both England and France to combine with Russia at Navarino, 1827, and wrest the Turkish yoke from the necks of the Greeks.

The Egyptian fleet suffered grievously on that occasion; and Ibrahim landed from another part of Greece, four hours after the battle, only to see the shores yet smoking with the remains of his vessels, and covered with the dead bodies of his seamen. Cries of anger and indignation arose at this sight in the Egyptian ranks, and reprisals were spoken of against the Christians; but this was but gasconade—and Ibrahim, smothering his grief, busied himself in saving the mere shadow of his fine naval armament. In 1833, Mehemet disputed with and dispossessed the pacha of Syria of his province, and added it 'for ever' to Egypt; and when the Sultan commanded him, on pain of removal from his pachalik, to relinquish his usurped authority, Ibrahim advanced at the head of a commanding force into the heart of Turkey, and in a battle at Konieh, took the grand vizir prisoner. Had not Ibrahim waited for further instructions from Egypt at Konieh, Mehemet would probably have been now sit-

ting on the Ottoman throne at Constantinople (*see* Revolt of Egypt); but a treaty at Kutaich united the pachaliks of Syria and Egypt under Ali, with the hereditary possession of the latter to Ibrahim after his father's death. This arrangement, however, scarcely satisfied the ambitious Mehemet; and he was on the point of seizing the sacred cities of Mecca and Medina, with a view of subjecting all Arabia to his power, 1839, when the death of sultan Mahmud induced the European sovereigns to interfere, and protect Turkey from further aggression.

It must be allowed that Mehemet has done much for Egypt. During the long period of his rule, pestilential marshes have been drained off, the bed of the large river repaired from Ramahliez to Alexandria, and olive, cotton, and mulberry trees, planted in all directions. The pacha has founded schools, and raised hospitals, timber-yards, and arsenals; in short, he has executed in less time, with less means and resources, and in spite of the embarrassments of a precarious situation, more than Peter the Great had even commenced during his long reign. But there must always be a limit to the benefits of Moslem rule; under which no country can reach a perfection higher than is compatible with the maintenance of the despotic chieftain's selfish and narrow views. Of the court of this singular despot, some notion may be formed from the following recital of a recent visiter. 'All the splendour of the Arabian Nights is realized in the court of Egypt. The guard of Nubian eunuchs (with their glossy black countenances) clothed in scarlet and gold, waving their Damascus sabres, and gently bounding on their snow-white steeds, is perhaps the most picturesque corps in the world. The numerous harem, the crowds of civil, military, and naval officers, all splendidly attired; the vast number of pages, pipe-bearers, and other inferior but richly-attired attendants; the splendid military music, for which

Mehemet has an absolute passion; the beautiful Arabian horses, and high-bred dromedaries — altogether form a blending of splendour and luxury, which easily recalls the golden days of Bagdad, and its romantic kaliph. This court is never seen to greater advantage than in the delicious summer-palace, in the gardens of Shubra, near Cairo. During the festival of the Bairam, the pacha generally holds his state in this enchanted spot; nor is it easy to forget that strange and brilliant scene. Emerging from fragrant bowers of orange-trees, you suddenly perceive before you tall and glittering brass gates, rising from a noble range of marble steps. These you ascend, and entering, find yourself in a large quadrangular colonnade of white marble. The colonnade surrounds a small lake, studded by three or four gaudy barques, fastened to the land by silken cords; and it everywhere terminates towards the water by a very noble balustrade, also of white marble, the top of which is covered with sculptures of various kinds of fish in high relief. At each angle of the colonnade, the balustrade gives way to a flight of steps, which is guarded by crocodiles of immense size, admirably sculptured in white marble. On the outer side, the colonnade opens into a number of very brilliant banqueting-rooms, which you enter by withdrawing curtains of scarlet cloth; a colour vividly contrasting with the white shining marble of which the whole kiosk is formed. It is a favourite diversion of the pacha to row some favourite Circassians upon the lake, and to overset his precious freight in the midst. As his highness piques himself upon wearing a castan of calico, and a juba or exterior robe of coarse cloth, a ducking has not for him the same terrors it would offer to a less eccentric Osmanlee. The fair Circassians, shrieking, with their streaming hair and dripping finery, the Nubian eunuchs rushing to their aid, plunging into the water from the

balustrade, or dashing down the marble steps—all this forms an agreeable relaxation to Mehemet, after the labours of the divan.' Mehemet Ali has done much towards regulating the coin of North Africa; but he has great difficulties to contend with.

When he took Cordofan from Darfur, he found the people ignorant of the use of money, they having simply bartered their corn with Darfur for other commodities. He therefore introduced the Egyptian coins; but on account of the low rate at which every article of life was sold, he was obliged to invent a lower medium of circulation, and, as iron ore was abundant, coined iron money, forty pieces amounting to about three-pence sterling. In some African cities, the value of coin ever varies, and is proclaimed from time to time by the chief; and it displays the barbaric state of society, when we hear that a chieftain's *feast* will completely change the currency's worth! This excites much stir; and the bulls and bears, as on the London Stock Exchange, take every advantage of the fluctuation. While on the subject of Egypt, it may be noticed that the inhabitants of Cairo and Alexandria are commonly blind of one eye, and deprived of the index-finger of the right hand; both self-inflicted mutilations, to avoid the frequent conscriptions of the pacha. The Mamluks, it should also be observed, never could rear any issue in Egypt, and seldom indeed had any born; and the curse named by Ezekiel would seem yet to be upon the country,—'It shall be the basest of the kingdoms; neither shall it exalt itself any more above the nations!'

As respects the result of Mehemet Ali's government, we have above observed, that the selfish views of every Mohammedan ruler, which presupposes the enslaving of the subject, must limit within small bounds the good his government can effect, preventing as it does all great and general ameliorations. All Moslems know how to conquer countries, but none

how to civilize them and benefit them when conquered. Mehemet has done as much for his country, as any hitherto powerful Moslem sovereign has been known to do; but among his barbarian acts and tendencies, we must, as historians, express our horror at his wholesale spoliation of Egyptian antiquities, a work he yet daily labours to promote. 'We will now proceed,' says Mr. Gliddon, 'to trace the devastations that, since 1800, have swept off ruins,—monumental relics that had survived the Persians, the Christians, the Saracens, and the Turks,—to disappear under the civilizing rule of the present governor. To do so effectually, the reader is invited to accompany the writer on an excursion down the Nile. Our starting point shall be Asswan (Syene), at the first cataract. Before embarking at this place, we seek in vain for the remains of that temple, which, up to 1822, had been in partial preservation; but our researches have scarcely enabled us to discover its site; and we find that numberless sculptured fragments, which existed formerly in quays or substructures, have greatly diminished. We cross over to Elephantine, and there ascertain the absence, excepting in a few detached blocks, of a temple of Amunoph III.; one of Alexander, son of Alexander the Great; one Christian ruin; a portion of another temple; the chambers of the celebrated Nilometer, of the staircase (consisting in 1800, of sixty-six steps) of which scarcely a vestige remains. We inquire how and when they disappeared, and learn that the whole were destroyed by his highness's orders, to build a palace for Mohammed Bey, between the years 1822 and 1825, as well as to construct a military village. We walk through these modern constructions, and find that, having done their part, they also are now in ruins. We embark for Edfoo, where stood two temples of the Ptolemaic epoch in a state of great preservation, though partially buried in accumulations of

rubbish and sun-burnt bricks. The larger temple has suffered chiefly from the iconoclasts; but of the other, the Typhonium or Mammisi, all the superstructures, and some of the lower portions, have been quarried, to collect into scattered heaps the materials for a manufactory which was never built—a counter order for its non-erection having been issued by the pacha, after the devastation of the venerable ruins, which had thus become wanton and needless. Full of enthusiastic expectations, we descend towards Eilethyas (El Kab), after seeking in vain, among the ruins of Hieraconpolis (El-Kom-el-Ahmar), for the revered name of the first Osortasen. We ask a fellah, 'Where are the stones?'—he points to Esne, and exclaims, 'Rakh!' (gone). Having crossed the river to the eastern bank, our feelings are rudely shocked, our hopes cruelly disappointed, when, on landing at El-Kab, instead of three temples—two at the brick enclosure of the ancient city, and one a beautiful peripteral temple, to the northward—we find a stony waste! The names of Achoris, of Thotmes IV., Mæris, and a prænomen of Thotmes V., with the title 'Sotepanre' (approved of the sun), still discernible on some fragments, only increase the poignancy of our regret. These three temples of 'Sowan' were overturned by the pacha's order, to build some useless factories and a quay at Esne; but as his agents had a superabundance of materials, after needlessly destroying these interesting remains, they have dragged the stones towards the river, and left them in heaps! The factories at Esne are now shut up; the quay a miserable instance of Turco-Egyptian constructiveness. At Esne, that magnificent portico, commenced by the Ptolemies, and adorned by the Roman emperors with most of their names, from Tiberius to the infamous Caracalla, is now a store-room for government *matériel*: till lately it was a dépôt for cotton bales. But still it exists, which is not the

case with the little temple at Contra-Laton, which was destroyed in 1828, for the quay at Esne; to furnish stones for which, that interesting temple at Ed-Dayr, to the north of Esne, has shared the same unhappy, irretrievable fate. Erment (Hermonthis) is approached with fearful apprehension. The Mammisi of Cæsarion is untouched by the crowbar; it is useful as a stable; the reservoir is also untouched, because, in the inundations, it answers as a tank, and, as it contains no sculptures, the nazirs and mammoors have no motive for destroying it; their greatest gratification being derived from playing the part of 'the dog in the manger,' and in baulking the expectant curiosity of European travellers. At Hermonthis, up to 1836, stood a large Christian church of the lower empire. A hole, surrounded by stones, carefully broken into little pieces, is all that marks its site; while to the left, a deep and extensive excavation reveals to the eye that another temple once there stood—built by Hadrian out of the ruins of a preceding temple of Thotmes-Mæris! Yes—in the course of destroying the church, the workmen were led to uncover some blocks, that just appeared on the surface of the soil; and the foundations of another extensive, and hitherto unknown temple were uncovered! The ground around, for an extent of nearly two acres, is spread with mounds of stones. But Thebes is near us. We land on the Goorna side, and proceed to the tomb of 'Petammonoph' at the 'Assasseef;' the painted chambers at the entrance of which, within ten years back, afforded shade and objects of study to the hieroglyphist, but are now blown into atoms, leaving it scarcely possible to ascertain their arrangement. This destruction had been at divers times commenced prior to 1830, and the subsequent final demolition; but the vigorous remonstrances of European travellers had temporarily diverted the destructiveness of the nazirs. But, when the

factories at Karnac were building, this tomb afforded a temptation too potent to be resisted. It was mined for *lime*. Its sculptures were the unique cause of its destruction; because, at the very moment when the nazir commenced, an European (the only one then at Thebes), in his efforts to save it, pointed out innumerable dilapidated and unsculptured tombs in the immediate vicinity, the stone of which afforded lime as good as the Assasseef! Crossing the river, our ardent imaginations are confounded by the sublimity of Karnac; but words cannot express our indignation at the demolition which has here taken place since 1836. Its extent is so enormous, that one might infer, from the magnitude of its effects, that the genius of Azrael himself had revelled in the brain of the Typhonic mamoor, who, to the best of his ability, had carried into execution the orders of his master. If the conceptions of the successive architects who erected these now disappearing edifices were mighty, not less vast were those which guided the hand of the destroying angel of a mamoor in their demolition. The result of his operations, from 1836 to the winter of 1840, are as follows. Commencing with the great propylon of the hypostyle hall of Karnac, the workmen, whose unrequited exertions were refreshed by the never-failing stimulus of the corbach, were proceeding with rapidity, when appeared a remonstrating European, through whose manly and strenuous exertions that great propylon was saved, though he was treated with insolence. The mamoor then directed his energies to the annihilation of all the sub and superstructures of the little temples. While the officers of the pacha's government were breaking every thing into rubble, no European could obtain a single stone, excepting through the customary mode of bribery; and permission to saw off the sculptured face of a block, which the sledge-hammer was about to shatter into

minute fragments, or to carry away the names of those extraordinary kings, whose remote epochs are a history and a stumbling block to chronologists, was attainable only at the tariff of nine piastres, nearly 2s. per cartouche. The destruction proceeded; and having reached the gigantic propyleia, on the Avenue of Sphinxes, gunpowder was adopted with great effect. The destroyers carried off scattered materials from the entire range round Luxor and Karnac; and they in different degrees mutilated other propyleia, and portions of the great temple itself. Passing over Mr. Gliddon's narrative of the destruction perpetrated at El-Quoos, Dendera, Essyoot, and other places, we arrive at his account of what has been left undone at the pyramids. 'We have reached the wonders of the world, the greatest of ancient monuments in the universe; and we find that, under the enlightened rule of Mehemet Ali, they owe their existence solely to an accident—that building materials are for the present procurable at less expense than would be furnished by their annihilation! We have witnessed, during the last forty years, the overthrow of temples, propyleia, palaces, and edifices, of every age, size, and designation, from Cairo to the 'Tower of Syene,'—the destruction of sculptures, legends, inscriptions, paintings, of every epoch and of every species, throughout the whole course of the Nilotic valley, on both shores, from Lower Egypt to the first cataract; and, in the immensity of desecration and loss, especially after what we have heard about Mehemet Ali and civilisation—words that are so frequently blended, that, to our ears, they have become synonymous—we can scarcely believe our senses.' Our enthusiastic author sums up the dismal catalogue of disasters by the following observation: 'Prior to the year 1820, the pacha of Egypt was too much engrossed in consolidating his newly-acquired dominion over that country—too much involved in

wars with Arabia—in quelling dissensions amongst his turbulent Arabian soldiery—as well as too much occupied in maturing the schemes which, after a lapse of twenty years, can hardly be said to have attained their full development—to attend to the antiquities of Egypt, for or against them. There was no object to be gained by the demolition of ancient monuments; on the contrary, the desire to create in Europe an impression in his favour, was a direct inducement for their preservation. In consequence, it will be found that until 1820, little injury had been done to the ruins, further than that which was being effected by European antiquity-collectors, or their agents, throughout Egypt. It will likewise be found that the destruction of ancient monuments, through the direct instrumentality of the Egyptian government, increased in extent in proportion as ‘la civilisation’ became familiar; and that, in the same ratio as the pacha saw that Europe looked upon him with favour, and hoped for improvements under his rule, the more indifferent he became to preserve that reputation by his acts in Egypt. It was from the year 1836 to 1839 that destruction obtained its full sway over Egyptian ruins—precisely during those years when the peace, secured at Kutaich, seemed to have assured to the pacha that position, which his restless ambition prompted him to peril, by declaring to the representatives of England and France, in 1838, his firm intention of violating that treaty, and of asserting his independence. Precisely at the time that the press in Europe was loudest in his favour, did he order the irreparable demolition of further ruins. Moreover, during these events, Mehemet Ali, in person, was four times in Upper Egypt—once when he visited Ghienne; again when he ascended to Esne; once on his journey, in 1838, to Fazogloo; and again in 1839, passing down on his return. His orders were of the most severe and peremptory nature, leaving his too

willing mammoors no discretionary powers, even had they been desirous of averting the mischief.’ The consequence of these orders has been that series of demolitions which every one must lament, because irretrievable. Our only hope now is, that Mr. Gliddon’s well-timed pamphlet may be the means of averting the destruction of the objects which remain; and we should with unfeigned joy see a strong representation from Great Britain to the pacha on the subject. He has shown a courtesy little expected from him, in the matter of allowing an English overland transit to India through his territories; and he may still see it his interest (for self-interest ever guides the actions of Moslims) to please us by relinquishing the barbarous tendency of his nation to senseless iconoclasm.

FOUNDATION OF THE KINGDOM OF HERAT, 1831.—It has been shown at page 133, that when Mahmud fled from his throne of Kaubul, 1818, he carried the crown jewels and his treasures to his fortress of Herat (distant 800 miles from our Indian frontier), the capital of that portion of Khorasan, of which he had been governor during his father Timur’s life. Upon acknowledging himself a tributary of Persia, 1821, he was permitted by that power to hold independent sway over his old district; or rather he was promised protection, should his Kaubul successor try to expel him. Thus was the modern Persia seen divided into three states, Persia Proper, Kaubul, and Herat; and Mahmud kept peaceable possession of his shorn estate until his decease in 1829. His son Kainran succeeded, and, by the skilful arrangement of his wusscer (vizir), Yar Mahomed, was acknowledged sovereign amir of Herat, 1831, by his former liege-lord, Shah Futteli of Persia; but upon the death of the latter, 1834, the designs of the new Persian shah, Mohammed Mirza, who aimed at recovering both Kaubul and Herat to his crown, compelled him to throw himself wholly under British

protection. Mohammed, however, got ready his forces for the march upon Herat; and in the intoxication of the moment, he declared that its capture should be only the preliminary to a career of conquests, that should rival the achievements of Nadir, and carry the Persian arms once more in triumph to Delhi! With an army officered by Russians, he arrived before Kamran's capital, 1838; but he had not long invested the place, when an Anglo-Indian force arrived to oppose him. He was compelled to raise the siege, and withdraw his troops, as they came, from fortifications which had been raised at the expense of the Indian government; and after many bickerings, a treaty was at length entered into, 1841, between Herat and Persia, Yur Mahomed therein acting as chief negotiator, by which Herat was for ever acknowledged a free state.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER KING WILLIAM IV.—In July, 1827, lord William Bentinck was sworn in at the East India House, London, as the successor of lord Amherst in the governor-generalship. His election was peculiarly acceptable to Mr. Canning, then premier, but who died before lord William's departure for Hindustan. His lordship was understood to go out with the intention of introducing a liberal and an economical system, both which were now considered respectively necessary in Indian politics and politico-economics. He arrived at Calcutta, July 2d, 1828, and soon after set out on a tour to the upper provinces, both to examine into the state of their affairs, and to cement the relations of amity with the neighbouring independent princes. He staid some time on a visit to Scindia's family at Gwalior, and also at Ajmere; where the Rajpoot chiefs were invited either to come to him or to send ambassadors. Extensive military reductions were made by his lordship on his return to Calcutta, particularly in the field allowance called *batta*, which excited a great deal of discontent

among the officers in the Company's service, many of whom were of good family, and had gone out in the hope of living in splendour, and ultimately acquiring fortunes. As respects the surrounding governments, no general conflict took place during lord William's administration; but some partial disturbances agitated the ruder borders of our Indian possessions.

In 1832 and 1833, considerable annoyance was sustained from a tribe called Chooars, inhabiting the jungly tracts on the eastern limits of Bengal. An extensive contraband trade in salt, favoured by this situation, gave them the opportunity of acting in large bodies, which they soon improved into an extensive and organized system of plunder. Individuals of high distinction were suspected as being connected with the Chooars' proceedings; but their ostensible leader was Gunga-Narain, chief of a small village in a hill-pass, and it was long before his usual force of 400 men could be utterly broken. Though repeatedly defeated, the pillagers still lurked under the thick cover of the entangled forests; but at length their numerous forts were taken and destroyed, Gunga-Narain himself was slain, and the Chooars never again mustered in any formidable numbers. The hill-country behind the Circars became, about the same period, the scene of some serious disturbances; bands of robbers having assembled in those rugged tracts, and plundered the lower districts. The villains at length organized themselves into two bodies, called 'fittirydars,' and received secret support from some great Zemindary families; but the British succeeded after a while, though not without considerable loss, in taking their chief fort, executing several of their leaders, and dispersing their main body, after hunting them for months from place to place.

In 1834 arose a more serious disturbance in the west. The old Coorg rajah had been an attached ally of the English, and had given them ma-

terial aid in the conquest of the Mysur; but the throne was now occupied by his son, a violent and tyrannical youth, who had exercised such great cruelties in his own family, that his sister and her husband fled to the British for protection. The rajah demanded, in the most peremptory manner, that they should be given up by the Madras government; and, on this being refused, he wrote some insulting letters to the officials of the presidency, and to the governor-general himself. Moreover, when a servant of the Company had been sent to treat with him, he put him in prison, refused to release him, and made it appear that he should, ridiculous as was the threat, considering his trifling power, commence a war with the English. A proclamation, issued at Calcutta, in April, 1834, by lord William Bentinck, announced thereupon his deposition; and a British force of 6000 men, under brigadier Lindsay, entered the Coorg country on the day of the declaration. The troops were harassed by the difficulties of the mountainous and jungled road to the capital, which were much increased by large trees cut down and laid across it; so that they could scarcely accomplish five miles of the way in fourteen hours. The enemy, however, did not venture to make a stand, and all the stockades were found deserted; so that the capital, Mudakerry, was entered without opposition by the main body, on the 6th of April. The three other detachments of the force, which had, perhaps unnecessarily, been directed to enter so difficult a country by other routes, met with more opposition. Colonel Foulis, from the west, after the loss of twelve killed, and thirty-six wounded, got through the Hugul Ghaut to Hugul; colonel Waugh, from the north, in storming the fort of Buck, lost forty-eight killed, including three officers, and had 118 of his men wounded; and lieutenant-colonel Jackson, advancing from Mangalore upon a position called Bullary Pett, lost thirty killed,

and had thirty-six wounded, through the compulsory retreat of his slender force from a well-manned stockade, the enemy firing unseen from some miles' length of bushes upon the flying party. It is clear that these were uncalled-for sacrifices; since, on April 11, the rajah entered Mudakerry in pomp, accompanied by 2000 unarmed followers, and fifty palanquins containing his female establishment, and, in the hope of being reinstated on certain conditions, surrendered himself to brigadier Lindsay. But the British had already formed their determination; his territory was added to their dominions; and the rajah received merely an allowance to support a suitable household, and was removed, under surveillance, to Bangalore.

The interior movements of Gwalior, the most powerful of the independent states now remaining, were next regarded by the governor-general with much anxiety. Dowlut Rao Scindia having died, had left the regency in the hands of his widow, the Baiza Bye; and that personage, to insure a male succession to the musnud (throne), as none had been left by her consort, adopted a youth by the title and names of the Maharajah Jhundhù Rao. Jhundhù, on coming of age, ungratefully aspired to supreme dominion during the Bye's life; and when lord William Bentinck visited Gwalior, he had the assurance to solicit his aid in ascending the musnud. This the governor-general at once refused, reminding him of his obligations to the Bye; but, in July, 1833, Jhundhù, on being beaten in an attempt to wrest the reins from the hands of his benefactress, contrived to render the British favourable to his interests, the Bye was deposed and sent into retirement with an annual allowance of rupees, and the musnud became his own,—the Company, on the *then* principle of non-interference, and of acknowledging the sovereign *de facto*, whoever he might be, granting him its protection. Another affair soon after

occupied the Anglo-Indian government. Maun Sing, rajah of Joudpore, who had been restored to power by the governor-general, on the footing of a subsidiary and dependant ruler, absented himself from the congress of Rajpoot princes at Ajmere, 1832, held to meet lord William Bentinck, according to custom. He had moreover neglected for two years to pay his tribute, and had given shelter to various freebooting bands, encouraging them in their plans of pillage. In October, 1834, therefore, 10,000 men were ordered to assemble at Musserabad, thence to march upon Joudpore; on which, after sending a deputation of thirty persons, with numerous attendants, to the governor-general, Maun Sing paid down his tribute, and finally yielded an unqualified submission to the British. The force intended for the Joudpore expedition was now employed against the Shekhawuttees, a rude tribe of the almost desert district west of Rajpootana, who had long been accustomed to ravage the states in their neighbourhood, when they were under native princes. But now they had become the company's territory, lord William resolved to put down the marauders; which he did by destroying all their fastnesses, and by keeping the district of Sambhur, as a security for the expenses of the war. The affairs of the Rajpoot state of Jeypore next occupied the general attention. The rajah, a thoughtless and voluptuous youth, had left the whole management of the government to his minister, Jotaram (originally a banker, a man of ability, but bearing the unprincipled character too common among Indian statesmen); and the rajah having suddenly died, and an inspection of his body being refused to the public, it was believed that the minister, finding the rajah about to deprive him of office, had secretly murdered him. As the rajah had left an infant, the British resolved to interfere, and settle a regency in the child's behalf; and they accordingly obtain-

ed the removal of Jotaram, and appointed approved natives to the government, under English superintendence. Soon, however, a jealousy was entertained, because the public affairs were controlled by the 'Feringees;' and the discontent broke forth fatally in the following manner. On June 4, 1835, major Alves, the English resident, with Mr. Blake, cornet Macnaghten, and lieutenant Ludlow, had an interview with the Mye-sahab, or dowager-princess; and, after taking leave, as major Alves was mounting his elephant, a man rushed from the crowd, having a drawn sword in his hand, and inflicted three wounds upon him, one in the forehead. The major being assisted instantly by a surgeon, and his wounds being dressed, Mr. Blake, on finding the assassin had been seized, undertook to conduct the offender to the place of confinement; but as he proceeded thither, the cry was raised, 'The Feringees have shed blood in the palace!' his elephant was surrounded and maimed, and he found the city gate shut, to prevent his egress. Turning back, upon finding this, he sought shelter in a men-dur, or temple, which was then fastened by the keepers on the inside; but the mob soon forced the doors, burst in upon the defenceless officer, and murdered him. Macnaghten, by galloping in another direction, though assailed by stones and other missiles, reached the residency in safety. The Jeypore government disowned all connexion with the outrage, though five individuals, whose guilt was clearly proved, were condemned and executed. Suspicion soon after fell upon Jotaram; and, after long preparation, he and several grandes were brought to trial by a native jury, and found guilty of instigating the revolt. They were all sentenced to death; but British lenity commuted the punishment to exile and imprisonment. It was in March, 1835, that Mr. Fraser, commissioner and agent of the Company at Delhi, was assassinated. As that gentle-

man was riding out late one evening, a man rode up as if to speak to him, rapidly discharged three balls into his body, and galloped off. After some time, through the evidence of an accomplice, the crime was brought home, not only to Kurreem, the actual murderer, but to a native chieftain, the Nawab of Ferozepore, by whom he had been employed to do the deed. Both were condemned, and underwent the extreme sentence of the law. The execution of Kurreem was attended by a vast concourse of natives, who, though kept in awe by an armed force, displayed a decided sympathy in his favour. The rajah was executed without the gates—which were kept shut; and thus any large attendance of the people was prevented.

The *Suttee* was a practice held so sacred, and was so deeply rooted in the prejudices and feelings of the Hindus, that it had ever been considered hazardous to prevent it. The marquis Wellesley had, in his time, boldly prohibited by ordinance, the sacrifice by parents of their infant offspring in the Ganges; but he had not ventured to meddle with the *Suttee*. The Company, however, in compliance with the evangelical party at home, at length authorized lord William Bentinck to issue an order for its discontinuance; and the result has been, as was foreseen by those best acquainted with the temper of the Hindus, the stricter adherence to the rite. A society, called the Dharina Subha, was instantly formed by individuals at Calcutta, for the purpose of keeping the ancient usages of the Hindu faith, and especially of the *Suttee*, which (says the society) has been continued millions of years, under the successive eras of the *satyā*, *treta*, *dwapar*, and *caliyugs*. The members of the society have organized themselves on the model of the religious institutions in England, with a president, secretary, subscription-papers, and corresponding branches; and having called upon every holy

Hindu to contribute to the pious work, they have raised considerable sums to promote the objects of the society, while they have renounced all social intercourse with those few of their countrymen who follow an opposite course, and who are styled the *Brama Subha*.

Declining health compelled lord William Bentinck to solicit a return home; and, accordingly, in March, 1835, he embarked for England. His departure was the theme of general regret; for his administration had been marked by economy, a pacific spirit, and a conduct of great mildness and indulgence towards the natives. His system was considered by a party among the military, as having been carried somewhat too far; but it was in strict conformity with his instructions, and was undoubtedly prompted by the best motives. His efforts to improve internal intercourse, by the establishment of steam-vessels between the different Indian ports, and by the formation of extensive lines of road through the interior, commanded universal applause. He favoured also the diffusion of education and knowledge among the Hindus; who are a remarkably docile and teachable class, sensible of kindness, and most strictly attentive to all religious observances, whether of dress, food, or general conduct. A Hindu would not only not dare, he would not even *wish*, to dress out of his grade, or to go from the custom of his fathers by wearing the more becoming cap, or turban, or vest, of even another trade—supposing him a mere artisan—for every art has its peculiar costume. The benevolent views of lord William were constantly seconded by the exertions of his amiable and elegant lady, who was regarded as a queen in the East, and whose drawing-rooms had always been attended in the most brilliant manner. A statue of his lordship was erected by subscription in his honour, at Calcutta, in 1836.

EMINENT PERSONS.

RICHARD COLLEY WELLESLEY (1760—1842), eldest son of Garrett, earl of Mornington, was born in Dublin, and educated at Eton, and Christchurch, Oxford, displaying an unusual taste for classical pursuits. On the death of his father, 1784, he took his seat in the Irish house of peers, as earl of Mornington; and he voted with the ministerial minority, (during the lieutenancy of the duke of Buckingham, 1789,) in opposing the address to the prince of Wales, to take upon him the office of regent during the mental indisposition of his parent. The king, on his recovery, testified his sense of the earl's feeling, by making him a privy-councillor, and investing him with the order of St. Patrick; and this induced lord Mornington to obtain a seat in the English commons, where he sat first for Beeralston, and then for New Windsor. He was soon after made a commissioner for Indian affairs, and in 1797, as baron Wellesley in the English peerage, was sent out to succeed the marquis Cornwallis as governor-general at Calcutta. His brother, colonel Wellesley, (subsequently the illustrious duke of Wellington,) had arrived in India with his regiment precisely a year before. The affairs of the colony, notwithstanding the recent successes, and the skilful arrangements of the preceeding governor-general, had again begun to exhibit symptoms of rising commotion. The spirit of Tippu Sultaun, sovereign of the Mysur, rankled under his losses; and emissaries from the French government encouraged him in his secret machinations for the recovery of the district of Coimbatore, and the hill fortresses which he had been compelled to surrender. The expedition of Buonaparte to Egypt, with whatever ultimate design it may have been formed, had the effect of enlarging the views, and of strengthening the determination of this Indian chieftain to shake off, if possible, the British yoke. He sent official agents to the French general in Egypt, and to the Mauritius, then belonging to the republic of France, with offers to raise any number of forces, and with requests that military men might be sent to instruct and command them. Lord Mornington was early apprehensive of these proceedings, and warned the prince of the Mysur that his destruction would assuredly be the consequence of his connexion with the French. Tippu replied in a strain of hypocritical courtesy, which increased the vigilance and activity of the governor-general; and it was soon discovered that an extensive league had been formed among the most powerful of the Mahometan princes, and that a treaty offensive and defensive had actually been entered into with the French Directory. The governor-general perceived that no measure short of the complete subjugation of so artful and inveterate an enemy, would avail towards maintaining the preponderance of the British power in India; and he, therefore, resolved to direct all the energies of his administration against the capital of the Mysur territory. Unfortunately, the Nizam, and the other native allies of the Company, had been afforded little assistance in recovering their strength during the peace effected by the marquis Cornwallis; and in fact, no system had at that time been acted upon for rendering the native forces permanent, and available upon urgent occasions. Even the European troops had been greatly neglected. By extraordinary exertions, however, which were well seconded by the governors of Bombay and Madras, lord Mornington raised a considerable army, and intrusted the chief command of it to lieutenant-general Harris; the reserve of which, consisting of the whole of the Nizam's forces and several European regiments, was given to his lordship's brother, colonel Wellesley. The frontiers of the Mysur country were

passed by the British and their allies on the 5th of March, 1799; and on the 28th of the same month occurred the only important effort made in the field by Tippù for the defence of his dominions. It has been alleged that his own acknowledged military talents, of which he had given the best proofs in the former war, were on this occasion checked by the French officers who surrounded him, and who were totally unacquainted with the character of Indian warfare. The battle was fought at the fort of Mallavelly; where the enemy, after some desperate displays of native courage, were driven from height to height with immense loss. Tippù having hereupon retreated to his capital, Seringapatam, the allied forces besieged him therein. By the 5th of April, the exterior intrenchments being successively carried, the artillery was advanced for the purpose of battering in breach on the 28th. On the morning of the 4th of May, the breach, nearly an hundred yards wide, was crowded with assailants; and one of the most sanguinary conflicts ever known ensued. Tippù, on this occasion, behaved with that personal intrepidity which was his principal characteristic; and he fell by three wounds from musket-balls, two in his right side, and one through his temples. Lord Mornington felt deeply the important position in which the conquest of the Mysur district, by the death of its sovereign, had placed him. He was not at first disinclined, on account of the strong interests that had grown up under the usurpation of Hyder Ali and his son, Tippù Saheb, to let the throne remain in the possession of the Moslem family; but he finally and justly determined upon the restoration of the ancient Hindu race of sovereigns, the representative of whom was a child of five years old. A partition of the territory was accordingly made; and the capital, with the districts on the coast, including the port of Mangalore, was assigned to the East India Company. The Nizam

was compensated for his expenses, by an addition to his dominions; and the remainder was granted to the infant rajah, with the nominal sovereignty over the whole. Having thus fixed the British power in India upon a more secure basis, and received as a reward for his services from the British court the title of marquis, the governor-general turned his attention to the personal and commercial interests, which agitated the traders and general inhabitants of the extensive dominions, whereof he was the temporary head. So early as 1798, he had listened favourably to the representations of certain merchants, who were desirous of participating in the benefits of the commerce with India; but the Company was deaf to his liberal suggestions on the subject, and from that moment almost regarded him as an enemy. In 1798 his lordship had also made a progress through the northern provinces of India, visiting the nawabs, and other princely potentates, in all the splendour of Asiatic magnificence. At Benares he was presented with an address from the European residents, deeply expressive of their sense of his valuable exertions, which, in the space of three years, had at once extended and consolidated the British empire in India. At Delhi, he visited the grandsons of the unfortunate Shah Alem (see vol. ii. 626), the last of the imperial sovereigns of India; and, having in the course of his viceregal progress heard and redressed the complaints of individuals, conciliated the dissensions of native powers, and created friends and allies, he received the submission of the provinces recently ceded to the Company, and conferred the government of them upon his brother, the honourable Henry Wellesley, subsequently lord Cowley. In the mean time the Mahratta powers were forming a new confederacy; and the restoration of Pondicherry to the French at the peace of Amiens, opened to them a channel of communication with the nation most desirous of

giving efficacy to their designs. At the head of this alliance was Dowlut Rao Scindia, who had made himself master of the person of the blind and aged Mongul, Shah Alem; and in the name of his royal prisoner, he concluded a treaty with Buonaparte, offering to deliver to France an extensive territory in India. M. Perron, a French officer of considerable talent, had long been in the pay of the Mahratta chieftain; and he had not only organized the native troops, but had a very large body of European soldiers under his command. The governor-general was not without intelligence of these designs, and was prepared to repress them. Colonel, now major-general, Wellesley, whose military reputation in Indian warfare had obtained him the confidence of the allies, was speedily in the field; and the glorious battle of Assaye struck at the heart of the Mahratta power. General Lake led a portion of the British forces to the northern provinces, where he completely defeated the French troops under Perron, and liberated the aged Mongul from his captivity; while the victory of Lassawarree, gained November 1, 1803, terminated a war, remarkable as well for the intelligence with which it was directed, as for the intrepidity and order with which its movements on the part of the victors were executed. The noble marquis had been long desirous of resigning his government, and of returning to England; but his services at that period were so important in India, that even a change in the administration at home was not followed by his recal. The wisdom and firmness of his measures had been attended by the most beneficial results. By his financial plans, the revenue of the Company had, with advantage both to the commerce and to the inhabitants, been raised from seven millions to upwards of fifteen annually; and the paper-currency, which, when he landed in India, was at fifteen per cent. discount, had risen nearly to par. We have already ob-

served, that, in consequence of the wars in which he had been compelled to engage, the frontiers of British India had been both extended and strengthened; and we may add that the political relations of the Company with the native princes were, by the wisdom of his negotiations, defined and consolidated, with a clearness and stability of which they were not previously thought to be susceptible. In 1805 the marquis resigned his high post (to which the marquis Cornwallis was again appointed); but he had no sooner reached England, than Mr. Paull, a member of the commons, laboured to impeach him for tyrannous conduct towards the nawab of Oude, and for other enormities. The charge, however, agreeably terminated in a vote in his lordship's favour. The marquis, in his subsequent senatorial conduct, sided for the most part with the whigs; though in 1809 he accepted the appointment of ambassador extraordinary to Spain, where his brother, then sir Arthur Wellesley, had again preceded him. His inability to get Cuesta, the Spanish allied general, displaced (on the ground that he was jealous of the British, and had intercepted supplies intended for their army), induced him to return to England; and on the resignation of the foreign secretaryship by Mr. Canning, (who had been wounded in a duel with his colleague, lord Castlereagh,) he was appointed his successor, under the premier. Mr. Perceval, chancellor of the exchequer. He resigned the post, 1812, in consequence of a difference with the cabinet on the catholic claims' question; but he was, on the assassination of the premier, called on to form an administration himself. The noble marquis's attempt to unite whigs and Tories in a cabinet failing, lord Liverpool had the task of forming a ministry; and the marquis thereupon confined himself in parliament principally to the affairs of the Spanish peninsula. He repeatedly called the attention of the peers

to the situation of his gallant brother ; who, for want of effective co-operation on the part of the Spanish government and its officers, as well as on account of his being perpetually disappointed of the reinforcements he was taught to expect from this country, might be said rather to be struggling to maintain a glorious existence by a series of surprising victories, than to possess the means of accomplishing the object at which he aimed, and to which the attention of those who best understood the interests of this country were particularly directed—the expulsion of the French from the Peninsula. His lordship described the conduct of the Spanish government as feeble, irregular, and ill-directed, while, in far stronger terms, he depicted the system adopted by the British ministers as ‘timid without prudence, and narrow without economy ; profuse without the fruits of expenditure, and slow without the benefits of caution.’ He, however, failed in forcing lord Liverpool upon ‘an inquiry’ into the circumstances of the last campaign in the Spanish peninsula. . In 1822, when lord Sidmouth had resigned office, the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland was accepted by the marquis, much to the alarm of the protestant interest in that country. On the other side, the expectations of the catholics were proportionably raised ; and the arrival of his excellency, instead of being an appeal to the confidence and harmony of both parties, was converted into a signal for the display of the most bitter animosity. It was also soon perceived by the protestants, that however favourable the lord-lieutenant might be to the claims of the catholics, he was far from being supported by the administration at Westminster. Hence the irritation of the catholics was increased by disappointment ; and the whole province of Munster, as well as vast districts in other parts of the island, was thrown into a state of insurrection. To manifest the endeavours

of the marquis to promote unity, he discountenanced the use of those toasts and songs with which the anti-catholics were accustomed to insult their opponents ; and, with the assistance of sir A. B. King, lord mayor of Dublin, he prevented the decoration of the statue of William III., in College-green, on the 4th of November, the anniversary of that king’s arrival to supplant his son-in-law. The corporation of Dublin, offended at this innovation, passed a vote of censure on the lord-mayor, and did not refrain from allusions to the lord-lieutenant. This was followed by a public personal insult to the noble marquis on his visit to the theatre. The judicial proceedings consequent on this affair convinced his lordship at once of the difficulties that would obstruct him in the conciliatory system which he was prepared to adopt ; and the Orange party obtaining a triumph by the jury being unable to agree upon a verdict against the persons concerned in the outrage on his lordship, the marquis was not sorry to be recalled to England, 1828. Under the administration of his illustrious brother, the duke of Wellington, the marquis held no post ; but when William IV. succeeded, he was induced to resume the government of Ireland, 1830. His conciliatory plans were re-attempted, and with somewhat better success ; but in 1834, on the fall of lord Grey’s ministry, he was once more recalled, and, with the exception of holding the lord chamberlain’s office one year, appeared in public no more. In 1837, the marquis’s pecuniary embarrassments being made known to the East India Company, that body, with a liberality and gratitude that reflect the highest honour upon them, directed that the sum of 20,000*l.* should be appropriated to his use and benefit. This generosity placed him, though not in affluence, at least in independence to the day of his decease ; but we cannot help thinking that the nation at large should have fore-

stalled the generosity of the Company. A nobleman who had displayed in India, in so talented a manner, and with such enlarged views, his wish to benefit his country, and who was above all the brother of their greatest general, should not have been allowed to need any such subordinate assistance. The marquis died, aged 82, 1842, and was interred at Eton, by the side (at his own request) of his ancient friend, the provost Goodall. The marquis retained to his last day his love of classical lore; and many of his Latin poems, written late in life, are deserving of the highest commendation.

JOHN JEFFREYS PRATT (1759—1840), eldest son of Charles, first earl Camden, completed his education at Trinity college, Cambridge, of which university he was elected chancellor, 1834. Among other appointments, he held the very lucrative one of teller of the exchequer, the proceeds of which (24,000*l.* per year) he munificently paid back yearly into the treasury, for the public service, (amounting in the end to 366,116*l.*), in the vain expectation of seeing other highly-paid, though otherwise wealthy, state officers follow his example. This venerable and truly patriotic peer died, aged 81, 1840; and his own rental was then but 8000*l.* per annum.

THOMAS BURGESS (1756—1840), was youngest son of a grocer of Odilham, Hants, and was born in that village. Being a boy of studious habits, his father's pride was to see him in the church; and in the hope of that event, he obtained him a place on the foundation at Winchester school, where he had Warton for a master, and Addington (eventually lord Sidmouth) for a schoolfellow. Soon after being entered at Corpus Christi college, Oxford, upon a Winchester scholarship, he distinguished himself by his devotion to Greek literature; and at twenty-two he edited an edition of Burton's '*Pantologia*,' then took orders, and became tutor of his college,

having Mr. Abbott, afterwards lord Tenterden, for one of his pupils. In 1785 he was appointed examining chaplain to Barrington, bishop of Salisbury, simply through the prelate's hearing of the quiet habits, as well as the classical attainments, of Mr. Burgess; and soon after the translation of his patron to the see of Durham, he received from him one of the golden prebends of that cathedral. In 1802, his old schoolfellow, lord Sidmouth, wrote to him, stating that 'though they had been separated for thirty years, he had not been a stranger to the excellence of his private character, nor to his exertions for the interests of religion and learning; and that he had therefore named him to the king, to succeed lord Murray in the see of St. David's.' As bishop of that diocese, he has established his name by founding the college of Lampeter, 1822, for the better and inexpensive education of Welsh candidates for ordination: he also originated the royal society of literature. Being, on the death of bishop Fisher, 1825, translated to Salisbury, he laboured strenuously to promote the interests of the clergy of his new diocese. This talented and venerable prelate died of an apoplectic seizure (the first attack of which was during a confirmation at Warminster, on which occasion he sank down insensible at the altar), in his 85th year, 1840. Bishop Burgess's rise should serve as an assurance to the youth of our schools and universities, that scarcely any thing is impossible, so far as regards professional success, to the two united means of steady industry and an uniform regard to respectability of character. The prelate was born of an humble family, and with nothing but the virtually rich and enviable dower of pious parents. With sound religious principles, and little money, he began the world; and alone by uniform diligence and propriety of conduct did he become the architect of his fortune. In the brisk and active competition of the present

age, no one can expect to attain that degree of knowledge which commands success, without a course of early, long, and continuous application; and even the highest degree of knowledge may be rendered useless, unless accompanied with that character of prudence, and propriety of moral qualities, and of gentlemanly honour, without which no public man can undertake the responsibility of calling even men of the highest talents into the public service. John, an elder brother of the bishop, became a successful oilman in London, and the inventor of a celebrated fish-sauce, which is likely to remain long a memento of his good taste.

JOHN SHORE (1751—1834), son of a gentleman residing at Melton, Suffolk, went to Bengal as a cadet in the East India Company's civil service, 1769, and was first stationed at Moorshedabad, as an assistant under the council of revenue. His proficiency in Persian obtained him the post of translator of that language to the council; and in 1774 he was advanced to a seat in the revenue board at Calcutta. On the dissolution of the latter, consequent on the new charter to the company, 1781, Mr. Shore was made a member of the general committee of revenue; and he instantly formed an intimate friendship with the governor-general, Warren Hastings, whom he accompanied to England, 1785. While in England, he married the daughter of Mr. Cornish, a surgeon at Teignmouth; and returning in 1786 to India, he received the appointment of member of the supreme council, under the new governor-general, lord Cornwallis. To Mr. Shore's influence in this important office, is mainly attributed the adoption of that great measure concerning a new settlement of landed property in Bengal, 1789, which constituted the *zemindars*, who had hitherto been simply the revenue-agents or tax-gatherers of the government, the hereditary proprietors of the estates which they farmed; while the *ryots*, or peasant-

try, who had till now a right of occupation so long as they paid their assessments, were declared the tenants of the *zemindars*, and made removable at the will of their landlords. In 1792 Mr. Shore was made a baronet by king George III.; and he then occupied himself in reforming the judicial system of the Bengal presidency. On the retirement of lord Cornwallis, in August 1793, sir John Shore succeeded as governor-general; and he held that high dignity (see page 244) until the close of the year 1797. His system of policy, influenced greatly by his religious opinions, which leaned to the tenets of the methodists, was so wholly pacific, that the native states, which had all along required the most vigorous demonstration of a warlike defiance on the part of the British, to keep them in decent subjection, were at length seen bristling up on all sides; and nothing now was talked of but conspiracies for a general rising, in order to expel the English enslavers of Moslim and Hindu from the soil of Hindustan. Sir John, therefore, resigned in 1797, and was succeeded as governor-general by the earl of Mornington, 1798; and, on his arrival in England, he was created an Irish peer, by the title of baron Teignmouth. His lordship had succeeded, on the decease of sir William Jones, 1794, to the presidency of the Asiatic society, and was now superseded therein by sir Robert Chambers. On the formation of the Bible Society in England, in opposition to the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, 1804, lord Teignmouth was chosen its president; and the remainder of his life was mainly connected with the proceedings of the evangelical portion of his countrymen. He was, in 1807, made one of the commissioners for the affairs of India, or, in other words, a member of the Board of Control, and a privy-councillor; and he died, aged 63, 1834. His lordship published the works of sir William Jones, in 13 vols. 8vo, with his life written by himself.

ROWLAND HILL (1772—1843), son of sir John Hill of Hawkestone, Salop, bart., was born in Shropshire, and early entered the army. He rose speedily to command, and eminently distinguished himself during the Peninsular war, (at the battles of Roleia and Vimiera, Corunna, Talavera, Almaraz, Vittoria, Orthes, and Toulouse); for which he was, in 1814, immediately after the battle of Almaraz, where his valour had been especially conspicuous, created a peer by the prince regent, with the title of baron Hill of Almaraz, and of Hawkestone, county of Salop. He again distinguished himself at the decisive contest of Waterloo, 1815, and was, in the following year, re-created a baron, by the style of baron Hill of Almaraz and of Hardwicke, Salop, with remainder to his nephews. He was appointed governor of Plymouth, 1825, and commander-in-chief of the British army, which latter post he resigned in 1842, in consequence of declining health. His lordship died a bachelor, aged 71, 1843. Lord Hill was a most worthy character in private life, and strongly tinged, it is said, with the notions of the evangelical portion of the church; a bias we should scarcely expect to find in a general-in-chief.

DUGALD STEWART (son of Matthew Stewart, D.D., a Scottish divine celebrated for his physical attainments), was born at Edinburgh 1753, and educated at the high school there. He early displayed a love for metaphysical research; but his attention being turned compulsorily for a time to physics, in order to aid his father as a teacher, he became sufficiently advanced in mathematical knowledge to assume the charge of the classes hitherto instructed by Dr. Stewart at Edinburgh, at the early age of 20. On reaching 21, he was appointed mathematical professor, and he continued teaching, with great success, until his 25th year; when an occasion presented itself for resuming his favourite branch of study, under the most advantageous

circumstances. Dr. Ferguson, the professor of moral philosophy in the university, having been sent with the commissioners concerning a peace, to North America, Mr. Stewart was requested to fill his place until his return; and, assisted at first by notes, he contrived to lecture, 1778-9, on Ethics, to the moral classes. He was soon enabled to think over every morning his day's subject, and then to address his pupils extempore; and so much did his amiable and elegant manner enhance the value of his services, that when Dr. Ferguson retired in 1785, Mr. Stewart was appointed his successor, being then aged 32. So highly popular did the new professor soon become, that his lecture-room was crowded, and his fame spread over Great Britain, even before he had published any thing; and he continued celebrated as both a lecturer and a writer on ontology till declining health compelled his resignation of the professorship, 1810. Retiring at once to the privacy of his residence, Kinnell House, on the Frith of Forth, he passed the remainder of his days in continuing the thread of the ethical subjects he had commenced publishing while a lecturer; and he died, much lamented by a large circle of admiring friends, aged 75, 1828. Dugald Stewart's chief works, which have obtained him the appellation of 'The Scottish Plato,' are 'Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind,' 'Outlines of Moral Philosophy' (written as a text-book for his pupils), 'Philosophical Essays,' and 'A General View of the Progress of Metaphysical, Ethical, and Political Science, since the Revival of Letters,' the last-named forming the preface to the supplement of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The Scottish Plato in nothing displays either arrangement, novelty, or depth. His merit as a metaphysician chiefly consists in his attacks upon the sensualist school. As the amender of Reid's system, he wisely puts in place of the common-sense or instructive principle, that of

the laws of human thought or belief; and his enthusiastic and very elegant style, supported by a refined taste, and by the interweaving of much polite literature with his subjects, renders his productions singularly attractive.

The general reader we believe to be but in a trifling degree interested in the abstruse sciences, because so little has been done to classify for him the various branches of humane and physical learning. It may not be here out of place, therefore, to attempt a partial dissipation of the fog which this neglect of teachers of science has suffered to envelop the minds of the mass.

All science is either moral or intellectual. Moral science, so called from *mores*, manners, relates wholly to men's conduct; intellectual science pertains entirely to men's acquirement of knowledge, in the most limited sense of the word—knowledge here meaning school learning. Moral science divides into three cardinal institutions, and five subordinate ones—in all eight; such eight including every subject connected with moral science. The three cardinal moral institutions are ethics, including really man's rule of conduct to God, his neighbour, and himself; economics, fixing his duties as head of a house or family; and politics, determining what are his duties to his country as one of its citizens. The five subordinate points are simply illustrations of, and adjuncts to, the three cardinal ones, and are government, law, history, geography, and chronology—the two former essential to man in a state of civilization, and the three latter necessary to aid his inquiries into the progress of his race in such state of civilization. To extend the province of the whole five subordinates as much as possible, government is treated of under its four varieties, monarchy, oligarchy, polyarchy, and mistarchy; law is to be considered in its divisions of justice and equity; history and geography, under their subordinates

of natural, civil, and ecclesiastical; and chronology, under its divisions of ancient, middle ages, and modern.

Intellectual science, the other great division of science, has two subdivisions, called physics and metaphysics; physics, treating of our application of school knowledge to *matter*, and metaphysics, of the same knowledge of the schools to *mind*. Hence the only two created substances, mind and matter, are the subjects of intellectual science. Physics are divided into three varieties: pure mathematics, mixed mathematics, and chemistry. Pure mathematics include all our calculations in simple arithmetic, geometry, and analysis, and apply to number and magnitude in the abstract, without reference to any objects of such quantities. Mixed mathematics apply to calculations wherein number and magnitude are mingled with and applied to physical and substantial objects: thus compound arithmetic, wherein number is applied to money, mechanics, which relate to the powers of force, and to that of motion of bodies in space,—and all other sciences which combine quantity and matter, belong to mixed mathematics—astronomy, pneumatics, electricity, hydrostatics, military and naval tactics, navigation, mensuration, optics, physiology in general. Chemistry, the third and last branch of physics, is styled, 'the higher physics,' and attempts great things; viz., to analyze matter, with a view of discovering its component principles. It is therefore by a species of antiphrasis that chemists, so commonly designated, obtain their title; since they add matter to matter, instead of separating matter into its parts. Metaphysics, the second and only other great division of intellectual science, and wholly applying to mind, has two parts—organic sciences, and ontology. The organic sciences are grammar, logic, and rhetoric, each having its subdivisions. Ontology, or the science of 'being' (from the Greek *on*, being, and *logos*, science),

is styled 'the higher metaphysics,' and bears the same relation to metaphysics that chemistry does to physics; for while chemistry attempts the analyzation of matter, ontology essays the yet more difficult task of analyzing mind—urging inquiries into the nature of that subtle creation, and tracing its *modus operandi* in the human will and understanding. This outline of a classification of human science will be found useful by those who are accustomed to keep pegs whereon to hang notes, as they gradually acquire knowledge.

ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER, better known as lord Woodhouselee, was the eldest son of William Tytler, the vindicator of Mary, Queen of Scots, and general writer, and was born at Edinburgh, 1747. His chief education was at the private school of Mr. Elphinstoun, at Kensington, near London; and under that good scholar's care, he became a sound classic, and had his mind also turned to modern languages—whereby he came to speak Italian fluently. Returning to Edinburgh, he prepared to enter the law, still keeping up an attention to general literature; and in the quiet seclusion of his father's residence at Woodhouselee, he studied the ancient writers of England, and thus laid in a stock of knowledge, and acquired a delicacy of taste, which, we feel well assured, can be gained in no other way. To an Englishman, after a sound classical education, that is the true Hippocrene; after drinking deeply of which, he will be worthy of contending with the sacred nine. Drawing and music were Mr. Tytler's recreative studies; and he always joined in the little family concerts wherein his amiable and accomplished father took such singular delight. In 1770 he was called to the Scottish bar; and on publishing his laborious work, a supplementary volume to the 'Dictionary of Decisions,' which he had undertaken at the request of lord Kames, he was appointed, first, conjunct professor, and subsequently

sole professor, of universal history in the college of Edinburgh. His 'Elements of General History,' published 1786, combine the substance of his valuable lectures in that capacity; and though they were chiefly intended for law-students, they are well worthy the deep attention of the student of history. His 'Essay on the Principles of Translation,' 1790, has become a standard work of English criticism; and its fame led to the author's appointment to the high dignity of judge-advocate of Scotland, in the year of its publication. In the leisure which this nevertheless important post afforded him, Mr. Tytler, on succeeding to the paternal estate by the decease of his excellent father, 1792, devoted a share of his fortune to the embellishment of the mansion and grounds, and to the enlargement of the sphere of his hospitality. His felicity, however, was interrupted by a fever and delirium, during which he burst a blood-vessel; and some years passed away before he could be regarded convalescent. His publication, with returning health, of 'The Question considered, whether Scotland has gained or lost by the Union,' led, in 1801, to his advancement to the bench of the Court of Session; and he took his seat thereon in 1802, as lord Woodhouselee. He displayed his ripe judgment in this new capacity, on all occasions where legal knowledge, an acquaintance with human nature, and a nice method of drawing distinctions between motives and acts, were requisite to elicit the truth, or to place before a jury, without obscurity of any sort, the facts whence its verdicts were to be deduced; and yet he failed not to devote every real leisure period to literature in his retreat at Woodhouselee, where his last production for the press was a valuable collection of anecdotes of the learned of his circle and day, bearing the title of 'Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Henry Home, lord Kames,' published 1807. On the elevation of lord justice clerk

Hope to the president's chair, 1811, lord Woodhouselee was raised to the Justiciary bench; and with this appointment terminated his professional advancement. He died, aged nearly 66, 1813; leaving a reputation for taste, talent, and personal worth, that will, we think, for the honour of human nature, long endure.

FRANCIS HENRY EGERTON, last earl of Bridgewater, mentioned in the previous reign as having originated 'the Bridgewater Treatises,' was cousin of the duke of Bridgewater, the father of English canal navigation, and succeeded his brother in the earldom, 1829. He was born 1756; and having been educated for holy orders, his father, the bishop of Durham, gave him a prebendal stall in his cathedral, to which other preferment, in the gift of his relative, the duke, was afterwards added. His lordship, subsequently to his ordination, resided for many years in Paris, where his eccentricities, so wholly unbecoming a Christian divine, formed the general topic of conversation.

At the time he died (aged 73, 1829,) his house was nearly filled with dogs and cats, which he had picked up at different places. Of the dogs, fifteen were admitted to the honours of his table; and the whole of them frequently wore clothes, like human beings. Sometimes a fine carriage, containing half-a-dozen of them, was seen in the streets, drawn by four horses, driven by a cocked-hatted coachman sitting on a hammer-cloth, and attended by two footmen in the family liveries. In his last days, when too debilitated to leave his own grounds, he adopted a strange substitute for the field-sports to which he had been addicted. About 300 rabbits, with as many pigeons and partridges, whose wings had been cut, were placed in a garden at the back of his house. This he would enter, carrying a gun, and, supported by two servants, would shoot two or three head of the *game*, and have them put upon table as his sporting trophies! Besides his bequest for the

'Treatises,' he left a large sum of money, and some valuable papers, to the British Museum.

CHARLES ABBOTT (1762—1832), was son of a barber at Canterbury, 'a tall, erect, primitive-looking man,' who went about with the instruments of his business, 'attended frequently by his son Charles, a youth as decent, grave, and primitive-looking as himself.' From the foundation-school of the cathedral of his native city, young Abbot was elected a scholar of Corpus Christi college, Oxford; where, in 1784, he obtained the chancellor's medal for the best Latin verses on Lunardi's balloon, and the like medal for the English essay 'On the Use and Abuse of Satire,' 1786. He was elected fellow of his college, and had for his private pupils Mr. (afterwards bishop) Burgess, and a son of Mr. Justice Buller; and the judge encouraged him to enter at the Inner Temple, with a view to the bar, to which he was eventually called, 1795. In that year he married Miss Lamotte, the daughter of a gentleman of some fortune in Kent; who, upon hinting to the young lawyer the necessity of a marriage settlement, is said to have been frankly told by the latter, 'that he had nothing but an excellent law-library, which the lawyers might tie up as tightly as they pleased.' Mr. Abbott selected the Oxford circuit, and rapidly augmented his attorney clients, chiefly through his tact for suggesting cases in point; while he was at the same time master of all the technicalities of pleading—advantages he derived from sir Vicary Gibbs, when solicitor-general, having intrusted him with all the government business—or, in the law phrase, having made him 'treasury devil,' whereby he was engaged in most of the many state trials of the close of the last century. He was soon appointed standing counsel to the Bank of England and other mercantile communities; and, from his returns to the income-tax, he was now in the receipt of 8000*l.* of annual fees. So

lucrative indeed was his practice as a barrister, that he declined a judgeship when offered to him in 1808; though, at last anxious for the repose of the bench, he accepted one eventually, 1816, was of course knighted, and in 1818 succeeded lord Ellenborough as chief-justice of the King's Bench. In 1827 he was made a peer, by the title of lord Tenterden, having, on a former occasion, declined such honour when offered by the prince-regent, on the modest ground, it was alleged, of his humble origin. His health had long been in a declining state, when the agitations connected with the passing of the Reform Bill (a measure which he had protested against, because unable, through the press of business, to attend in the lords) commenced; but he nevertheless presided for the first two days at the trial of the mayor of Bristol, for misconduct during the riots in his city. On the third day, however, he was confined to his bed, through a violent attack of inflammation; and the disorder resisting all medical aid, he expired on the following morning, aged 70, November 4, 1832. Lady Tenterden survived her husband but a month. This talented lawyer's best work, exhausting as it does the subject, is 'A Treatise of the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen.' His lordship continued to the last his classical reading; and being much delighted with the quiet recreations afforded by botanical studies, he both cultivated his garden, and composed Latin verses on its choice collection of flowers and plants. His taste in reading was quite arranged on the model of the schools; and when sir James Scarlett had observed to a jury, on a trial before him, 'that the poetry of lord Byron must be familiar to the court,' his lordship replied, 'that for himself, he had been bred in too severe a school of taste (Oxford), to admire the modern poets.' Lord Tenterden founded and endowed, in the grammar-school of his native city, the place of his own entrance upon education, two

annual prizes; the one for the best English essay, the other for the best copy of Latin verses, by its scholars.

GROVE PRICE (1793—1839), son of the rector of Knebworth, Herts, was, by his mother's side, connected with some of the most distinguished families in the kingdom. He was educated at Eton, and Trinity college, Cambridge; and his high attainments at the university procured him the gold medal for the Greek ode, the first Latin and English declamation prizes, an university scholarship, and a Downing fellowship. On quitting Cambridge, he entered at Lincoln's-inn, and was called to the bar; but having a decided distaste for the law, he never followed it as a profession. He now married the daughter of William Page, esq. (a chief member of council, and occasionally acting governor of Bombay), a high-minded, accomplished, and amiable woman, who proved to him, home-loving as he naturally was, his chief solace to the close of life. In 1830 he was returned to parliament for the borough of Sandwich; and he distinguished himself, from the moment of taking his seat, by an uncompromising opposition to the progress of the Reform Bill. His memorable speech delivered on the night of April 21st, 1831 (see page 385), is not only a fine specimen of manly senatorial eloquence, but includes most of the rational objections raised by the opponents of reform to that sweeping measure. Having sacrificed his seat to his principles, he continued out of parliament until the dissolution which followed the formation of sir Robert Peel's administration in 1834; when he was returned member for Sandwich and Deal. He now opposed the English, and subsequently the Irish, 'Municipal Corporations' bill, with all the vigour of a powerful and comprehensive mind; but his chief attention was directed to the sanguinary contest which, on the ground of a disputed succession, was desolating Spain. With that question he may be said to

have identified himself; and he brought to bear upon it all the enthusiasm of a chivalrous nature, combined with great historical research, and an intimate acquaintance with the philosophy of politics. The excessive labour of parliamentary duties (Mr. Price being one of the most indefatigable members of the commons' committees,) at length wholly destroyed the health of the estimable subject of our brief memoir; and he went prematurely to the grave, in his 46th year, June 17, 1839. 'The reading of Mr. Grove Price,' writes one who knew him well, 'was at once varied and extensive. Thucydides and Tacitus, Guicciardini and Tasso, Bacon and Barrow, Gibbon and Burke, were alike familiar to him; and he seemed to range at perfect liberty over the whole field of ancient and modern literature. To those who knew him it is unnecessary to add, that he had imbibed the spirit, and formed himself upon the model of Edmund Burke; for whose memory he entertained a filial reverence, and whose writings were treasured in his heart. His principles were but ill-suited to the age in which he lived; for they were unbending as the oak, and he would have laid down his life rather than have abandoned them. His eloquence partook of the character of his mind; it was bold, manly, and sincere. No false glitter or meretricious ornament impaired its effect, or disfigured its simplicity; whilst his language, drawn from the pure well of 'English undefiled,' flowed on in a rich and copious stream, imparting life to the driest, and beauty to the most uninteresting subject. His manner was frank, his temper generous, without a particle of envy, illiberality, or selfishness: and such was the respect entertained for his guileless character, his straightforwardness of conduct, and his singleness of purpose, that, amongst a host of *political opponents*, he probably had not one *personal enemy*.'

MICHAEL THOMAS SADLER (1780—1835) was born of respectable pa-

rents at Snelston, Derbyshire, but only obtained such education as a country school at Doveridge afforded; and he early joined the sect of methodists. In 1810 he was apprenticed to a clothier at Leeds, and in 1813 entered into partnership with the widow of Mr. Fenton of that place, whose daughter he married. In 1820 he was returned to parliament for Newark, and in 1831 sat for Aldborough Yorkshire, and eloquently opposed the question of 'reform.' He closed his senatorial career, 1832; and soon after retiring to Belfast in Ireland, he died there, aged 55, 1835. Mr. Sadler is especially to be remembered as the amiable opponent of the Malthusian and Martineau doctrines; against which he not only constantly reasoned in the house of commons, but wrote. For more than twenty years of his life, previously to his parliamentary career, the chief employment of his leisure hours was the study of the condition, wants, and miseries of the labouring poor; and his being's last end and aim was the removal of those miseries, and the general amelioration of the condition of the working classes. The motto of Mr. Sadler's system was 'Dwell in the land, and verily thou shalt be fed;' while that of the political economy school may be gathered from the following declaration of Mr. Malthus, its great high-priest. 'A man born into a world already possessed, (assuming that the world is already possessed, though not a tenth of the globe's terrestrial surface is under cultivation), if he cannot get subsistence from his parents, and if society does not want his labour, has no claim of right to the smallest portion of food; and, in fact, has no business to be where he is. At nature's feast there is no vacant place for him. She tells him to be gone, and will quickly execute her own orders, if he do not work upon the compassion of some of her guests. If these guests get up and make room for him, other intruders immediately appear, demanding the same favour.' (&c.) This

dreadful and disgusting dogma, which went far to bias the public against the more rational observations of Mr. Malthus, and which, speciously supported as it was, so long perplexed the minds of the sagacious, and pained the hearts of the good, it was Mr. Sadler's happy lot to refute, to destroy. As he was, though a methodist, no visionary, his proposed remedies were simple, and beneficial to giver and receiver; and by his plan the fringes of the rich man's garment were made to clothe the labourer in comfort, and the merciful abridgment of the spinner's toil restrained the covetous manufacturer from rushing into the ruin of over-production. He did not scorn, but investigated with calmness, those assumed facts whereon Malthus, Martineau, Marcel, *et id genus omne*, had based their doctrines; and one by one, with ceaseless toil, and indomitable perseverance, he tracked each fallacy and fabrication to its source, and finally left no one erroneous principle in all Mr. Malthus's statements undemolished. His great work, 'The Law of Population,' was published 1830.

THOMAS COKE (1752—1842) (son of Wenman Roberts, Esq, who took the surname of Coke on inheriting the estates of that family, and was only son of Anne, sister of the earl of Leicester, who built the Holkham mansion,) was returned at twenty-two, as member for Norfolk, and represented that county in fourteen successive parliaments. As a whig, he opposed the American war, that against the revolutionary French, the policy of Pitt, and every thing tory; and, on the other hand, he supported the catholic relief and reform bills. As a practical agriculturist and grazier he was unsurpassed, and as a patron to farmers unequalled. The annual festivals given by Mr. Coke at Holkam Hall, to encourage the due cultivation of the soil, will ever be most gratefully remembered. Having been the widower of his first wife (by whom he had only daughters) twenty-two years, he, when three-

score years and ten, espoused the lady Anne Keppel, daughter of the earl of Albemarle, a young lady of nineteen; by whom he had four sons and a daughter. In 1837, in his 86th year, he accepted a peerage, as earl of Leicester, being grand-nephew of that earl whose title became extinct, 1759; and he died aged 90, 1842.

ROBERT SOUTHEY (1774—1843), born at Bristol, was the son of a linendraper in that city. He was educated first under Mr. Foote, an aged Baptist minister, but was eventually, 1787, removed to Westminster-school, where, in 1790, he fell under censure for his concern in the rebellion excited against the head master, Dr. Vincent. In 1792 he became a student of Balliol college, Oxford, with a view to the church; but Unitarian principles, and the revolutionary mania, put an end to that design. So strongly did he imbibe the new opinions on politics which the outbreak of the French revolution had produced, that he, together with his friends, Lovell and Coleridge, projected a plan of settling on the banks of the Susquehannah in North America, and of there founding a new republic. This Utopian scheme, however, was soon abandoned, through want of means. In 1795 the enthusiastic democrat married Miss Tricker, and shortly afterwards accompanied Mr. Hill, his maternal uncle (subsequently rector of Streatham, Surrey) to Portugal, that gentleman having been appointed chaplain to the British residents at Lisbon. In 1801 Mr. Southey, who had lost the good graces of his uncle by his obstinate adherence to revolutionary opinions, obtained the appointment of secretary to Mr. Corry, Chancellor of the Exchequer for Ireland; and on retiring from office with his patron, he went to reside in a cottage near Keswick in Cumberland, from which neighbourhood he never afterwards removed. Under the same roof dwelt the widow of his friend Lovell, and the wife of Mr. Coleridge, both

sisters of Mrs. Southey. Having long devoted his leisure hours to poetry, he now became the confirmed votary of the muses; and in 1813⁹ he was appointed to succeed Mr. Pye as poet-laureat. It is needless to state that the jacobin principles of the bard's youth gradually gave way, as he increased in years and experience, and knowledge of the truth, to toryism:—such is the natural sequence—and the more violent the radicalism of the boy, the more ultra the conservatism of the man. So is it in religious faith; and the poet, from being an Unitarian, or rather a nullifidian, became eventually a high-churchman. However subject to discussion the exact literary position of Mr. Southey may be, not a doubt can exist as to the amount of that arduous intellectual labour, which, from the time of his settlement at the Lakes, he underwent. Volume after volume was poured forth by him with a fecundity and profusion unparalleled, excepting in the case of sir Walter Scott; and, as with the great novelist, the result was the total prostration of intellect. Though a youth of temperance had its effect in renewing the endurance and power of the corporeal functions, the mind could not bear its tasking beyond a fair and just proportion. The poet, from confusion of head, and loss of recollection, sank into perfect unconsciousness, in which state he continued, with only intervals of reason, for about two years, until his decease. But a few years before the mournful overloading of his intellect, he had taken for a second wife, Miss Caroline Bowles, a lady whose name as a poetess has been long and favourably known to the public; and who, in the last sad and blank period of his life, watched over him with the tenderest solicitude, and did all that the most devoted affection could do to lighten the heavy load of his existence. Dr. Southey (who had received the degree of LL.D. from Oxford university), died, aged 69, March 21, 1843. Among the poems which

he has given to our language, are 'Joan of Arc,' 'Thalaba the Destroyer,' 'Madooc,' 'the Curse of Kehama,' and 'Roderick, the Last of the Goths;' and they are all distinguished by very high power. As a prose writer, his 'Life of Nelson' and 'History of the Church' are models of purity in style; to which may be added his accurate and interesting life of the poet Cowper. Nothing can surpass the charm of his graceful, flowing, idiomatic manner, which possesses all the ease of Goldsmith, without his insipidity—exhibiting vigour without effort, and unbounded fertility of illustration without pedantry or ostentation. In all the relations of life, Dr. Southey was allowed to be truly exemplary. He was a gentleman in the best sense of the word. His house at Keswick was ever open to all who presented themselves with suitable introduction; and there are few persons of any distinction who passed through that picturesque region, who have not partaken of his hospitality.

THOMAS ARNOLD, a divine and schoolmaster of reputation, completed his education at Christ college, Cambridge, but was elected thence a fellow of Oriel college, Oxford. He graduated D.D., obtained the professorship of modern history at Oxford, and was elected head-master of Rugby grammar-school. He brought back the last-named institution to its former celebrity (the school having been long on the decline), by his unwearied attention; and the success of his pupils at the universities was commonly marked and striking. As a master, he was wholly exempt from the too common fault of bestowing an exclusive attention on boys of high promise, to the neglect of the great mass of the scholars; and all his pupils had that share of his assistance and encouragement which they required. Dr. Arnold died suddenly, in the prime of life, 1842. A whig in politics, and the friend almost of republican institutions, his notions shone forth in many works that he

published, particularly in the preface to his edition of 'Thucydides.' *His 'Roman History' and his 'Lectures' are extensively known, and variously appreciated; as are also his sermons, in some of which he takes those uncatholic views of the apostolical succession, and of the powers of the priest's office, that have commonly been found assumed by those adopting the line of politics which the doctor in his wisdom professed.

The grammar-school at Rugby, Warwickshire (16½ miles from Warwick), was founded in the 9th of Elizabeth, by Lawrence Sheriff, a grocer of London, a native of Brownsover, a neighbouring hamlet in the parish of Clifton. The land he left for its endowment consisted of eight acres, called the Conduit-close, near the Foundling, London, and it brought only 116*l.* per annum in 1780; but from the subsequent improvement of the estate, by the erection of numerous dwelling-houses, and the laying out of several streets upon the site, the revenue has been augmented to more than 5000*l.* per annum. The school is under the superintendence of 12 trustees, who appoint the head-master, with a salary of 118*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, a house and some land, and an annual payment of 16*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.* for every boy on the foundation. Of this latter sum he pays 6*l.* 6*s.* to the six assistant classical masters, 2*l.* 2*s.* to the master of modern languages, and 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* to the mathematical master. The assistant classical masters also receive from the trustees a permanent salary each of 120*l.* per annum; and salaries are also given to a writing and a drawing master. By a late regulation, the number of boys not on the foundation is never to exceed 260: the actual number recently, was 255, besides 59 on the foundation. The school has 21 exhibitions of 60*l.* per annum, tenable for seven years at either of the universities; also several fellowships, varying in value from 100*l.* to 300*l.* per annum, but not exceeding 1000*l.* per annum in the

aggregate amount. These fellowships are given exclusively to the head-master and assistant classical masters, on their choosing to retire after having been ten years in the establishment. The school premises were taken down, and rebuilt in the Elizabethan style of architecture, 1808.

WILLIAM HAZLITT, son of an unitarian minister, was born at Maidstone, 1778, and taken, when in infancy, by his father to America. On the return of the family to England when Hazlitt was nine years old, he was put to school at Wem, in Shropshire, whence he proceeded, in 1793, to the unitarian college at Hackney, with a view to become a preacher. In opposition to his father's wishes, however, he turned painter, and in 1802 visited the Louvre to study its gallery; but his fastidiousness was such, that he could never satisfy himself as to the encomiums his productions deserved, and in 1803 he started as a literary adventurer, his first work being a metaphysical one, now forgotten, entitled 'An Essay on the Principles of Human Action.' In 1808 he married the sister of Dr. Stoddart, editor of the 'New Times' newspaper, and soon after took a house belonging to Jeremy Bentham, and which had been once inhabited by the author of 'Paradise Lost,' in York-street, Westminster. His life was henceforth one unceasing course of literary exertion; but his lectures at the Russell Institution on English philosophy, and at the Surrey Institution, since hight 'the Rotunda,' Blackfriars, on the poets, brought him in a considerable and sufficient income, had he once thought of husbanding it. Hazlitt, however, was in every thing an unsettled person. In 1822 he obtained a divorce from his wife, two years after married again, and died, aged 52, 1830. Of all this unamiable and irritable man's productions, his 'Spirit of the Age,' wherein are portrayed the characters of his favourite contemporaries, is most to be lauded. His 'Table-

talk' has abundance in it to show how unworthy he was of the title of a philosopher, especially a Christian one; and his 'Essays' on literary and other subjects, in spite of occasional nervous passages, are too uninteresting, illogical, and, by a diffuse and unconnected style, too uninviting, to bring any lasting fame to their author. His bold contempt for the established customs of the world, and especially for the great, only evinced his discontented spirit; and we consider that his whole course of life (his authorship not excepted), abundantly illustrates that unfavourable view of his character.

ALEXANDER BURNES (1805—1841), born at Montrose, in Scotland, went as a cadet, 1821, to India; where, from his knowledge of Persian, he was marked for promotion. Though not twenty years old, he was chosen interpreter to a force of 8000 men, assembled for the invasion of Sindh; and some statistical papers which he compiled for government, 1827, obtained him its thanks, and a pension. In 1829 he was appointed to aid the political agent in Cutch in his survey of the north-west frontier; and in 1831 he was selected to present to Runjeet Singh a magnificent stud of horses from king George IV. His consequent journey to Lahore enabled him to obtain a great deal of new and important information concerning that state, the geography of the Indus, and the feelings towards the British of the amirs (ameers) of Sindh. At Loodinah he first met the late king of Kaubul, Shujah-ol-Mulk, then living as a guest within the British territories, and maintaining, while a pensioner on our bounty, those forms of sovereignty and ceremonies of state, which, ridiculous in his banishment, proved highly offensive to the wild Afghans on his restoration. On visiting Delhi, lieutenant Burnes was presented to 'the Great Mongul' as the impoverished prince is still absurdly styled; and in January, 1832, he had the governor-general's sanction for proceeding into

central Asia. Of this journey he wrote an account; and some notion of its interesting nature may be obtained from his own concluding words. 'In the outset, I saw every thing both ancient and modern to excite the interest and inflame the imagination—Bactria Transoxiana, Scythia and Parthia, Kharasm, Khorasan, and Iran. We had now visited all these countries; we had retraced the greater part of the route of the Macedonians; trodden the kingdoms of Porus and Taxiles; sailed on the Hydaspes; crossed the Indian Caucasus, and resided in the celebrated city of Balkh, from which Greek monarchs, far removed from the academics of Corinth and Athens, had once disseminated among mankind a knowledge of the arts and sciences, of their own history, and of that of the world. We had beheld the scenes of Alexander's wars, of the rude and savage inroads of Jenghis and Timour, as well as of the campaigns and revelries of Baber, as given in the delightful and glowing language of his commentaries. In the journey to the coast, we had marched on the very line of route by which Alexander had pursued Darius; while the voyage to India took us on the coast of Mekran, and the track of his admiral Nearchus.' On his return to England, 1833, lieutenant Burnes was thanked for his services by the East India Company; and on the publication of his travels, nearly 900 copies were sold off on the first day, the work being also soon translated into both German and French. The author was made a fellow of the Royal, Geographical, and Asiatic societies; the latter 'for having almost ascertained a continuous route and link of communication between Western Asia and the Caspian.' After a sojourn in his native country of eighteen months, lieutenant Burnes returned to Calcutta, 1835, to resume his duties of assistant to the resident at Cutch, colonel Pottinger; and, soon after his arrival, he was informed of king William's having honoured him

with knighthood, and advanced him to the rank of lieutenant-colonel. On the restoration of Shah Shùjah, September, 1839, he was appointed political resident at Kaubul, with a salary of 3000*l.* per annum; and he was unhappily shot in that capital, during an insurrection of the Ghilzie and other mountain-tribes, together with his brother, lieutenant Charles Burnes, November, 1841, aged 36. The *Ghilzies*, 5000 strong, and the *Khyberries*, are the most active of the predatory tribes inhabiting the mountains around Kaubul, the ancient fastnesses of their brethren of the plain, the Afghans, to whom they are now tributary.

THOMAS PLATT (1760—1842), born in London, was admitted an attorney and solicitor in the superior courts at Westminster, 1780; and for more than sixty years continued an eminent member of his profession. He held the responsible office of chamber-clerk to lord Mansfield when chief justice of the King's Bench, and to lords Kenyon and Ellenborough during the time they respectively presided in the same court. Those noble lords honoured him with the highest confidence and esteem; and when, upon the lamented death of the last of the three, he retired from office, a numerous body of his professional brethren testified their respect for him by the presentation of two handsome vases, with suitable inscriptions. The respect for his judgment and professional experience frequently induced litigant parties to refer their disputes to his arbitration; and although an arbitrator by his award seldom pleases either party, yet had Mr. Platt the good fortune commonly to satisfy both. Among the prominent events of his life was the publication of the '*Flora Græca Sibthorpiana*.' In the year, 1796, Dr. Sibthorp, professor of botany at Cambridge, who had been Mr. Platt's sch., at the school attached to *Marjalen* college, devised a freehold estate for the purpose of first publishing his '*Flora Græca*,'

and confided the execution of the design to Mr. Platt, the late John Hawkins, esq., of Bignor-park, Sussex, and the honourable Thomas Wenman; the last of whom was unfortunately drowned in the river Charwell, shortly after the death of the professor. The rents derived from the estate were of small amount; but the surviving executors, undeterred by the minuteness of the funds, conceived the project of publishing a work worthy of the reputation of the testator, by protracting its publication through a course of years. They combined the most delicate floral drawing, engraving, and colouring, and the choicest paper and type, to distinguish it as a work of art, while they selected the most scientific botanists to render it, by the arrangement and correction of the text, equally distinguished as a work of science; and, after forty years of indefatigable perseverance, they had the satisfaction of sending forth to the world, the last of twenty fasciculi of the '*Flora Græca Sibthorpiana*' in the autumn of 1840. Mr. Platt died at his house in Brunswick-square, London, in his eighty-third year, 1842.

WILLIAM OTTER (1768—1840), born at his father's vicarage, Cuckney, Notts, completed his studies at Jesus college, Cambridge, and took holy orders. In 1804 he resigned his fellowship to become rector of Colnworth, Beds, which he subsequently relinquished for other preferment. In 1812 he became known to the public by writing against the views of Dr. Marsh, and by defending such churchmen as join the Bible Society. (See *Nineteenth Century of the Church*.) Having accompanied Mr. Malthus and Dr. E. Clarke in their northern tour, he published, in 1825 '*the Life and Remains*' of the latter; in 1830 he resigned the benefice of St. Mark, Kennington, to become the first appointed principal of King's college, London; and in 1836, he was raised by the whig ministry to the see of Chichester. He died, aged 72, 1840.

THEODORE HOOK (1788—1841), son of James Hook, the celebrated musical composer, by Miss Madden, once the first singer at Vauxhall, was educated at Harrow school, and sent thence to Oxford. He was, however, expelled the university for some irregularity, at the age of twenty; and he thereupon took up the trade of writing for the stage, and produced several good farces, such as 'Tekeli,' 'Killing no Murder,' 'The Will,' and 'The Widow.' His conversational talents by some means recommended him to the duke of Cumberland, who introduced him to the Regent; and the latter (it is said for one of his songs,) bestowed on him the treasurership of the Mauritius. In that office, however, he, by levity and ill-management, got into difficulties; and upon his consequent recall became a prisoner in the King's Bench. On his liberation, he became editor of the 'John Bull' newspaper, which, with all its merits, rose into notice by its attacks upon the sufficiently assailed fame of queen Caroline; and if Mr. Hook was really the author of those brutal libels, his own fame as a man and a Christian must very seriously suffer. As a novelist, Mr. Hook is fully deserving of praise; and his 'Sayings and Doings,' 'Maxwell,' and 'Gilbert Gurney,' will long find a place in the library of light reading. He died, aged nearly 53, 1841.

FRANCIS CHANTREY (1782—1841), was son of a small farmer, and was born at Morton, Derbyshire. He was long one of the farm-servants, and frequently took its milk, butter, and eggs to Sheffield market; and it is still remembered that the butter often exhibited strong indications of the young modeller's art. He was afterwards apprenticed to a carver and gilder; but having an uncle in London, who was butler to the late Miss D'Oyly, he found an opportunity of getting to the metropolis, and of giving scope to his natural talent for *copying*—that fertile source of the sculptor's and painter's genius. In

London he began painting portraits; but he gladly threw aside that branch of art for modelling, on getting an introduction to Banks, the celebrated sculptor—who obtained his admission to the royal academy as a student, 1809. In this excellent school of art, Mr. Chantrey prosecuted his studies with such assiduity and effect, that in 1816 he was elected an associate, and in 1818, R. A.; and from that moment until his last day, the greatest good fortune attended his professional efforts, as the list of his works, and the wealth he realized by them, abundantly prove. We have noticed in vol. ii., 557, the difficulties he alleged to be attendant on the sculptor's rise. King George IV. knighted him; and after acquiring above 100,000*l.* by his chisel, he died suddenly, from a spasmodic affection of the heart, aged 59, 1841. It was in portrait-sculpture that Chantrey was formed by nature to excel. In that department of art he had no rival; and indeed he originated a new era for that peculiar branch of modelling. Nothing like the truth to nature, elegance, and taste of arrangement, especially in the hair of busts, had ever been seen in a British artist, before the existence of Chantrey; and it is even a doubt whether there is in classic Italy, in this day, a sculptor worthy of comparison, for busts, with our artist. Here, however, his genius rested; beyond the bust his powers were limited—and for groups, or even whole figures, he was obliged to have recourse to able designers, such as the late Mr. Stothard. From their designs he got up his models, and, transferred to the marble, they were often considered the sole work of his master-hand. Such is his beautiful monument to two children, represented as asleep, in Lichfield cathedral; but for that and other like productions of his chisel, he deserves neither praise nor blame for either the beauties or the defects that may appear in the drawing or the grouping. Among his transcendent busts, those of the mar-

quis of Londonderry (Castlereagh) and sir Walter Scott may fairly be considered *chefs-d'œuvre* of portraiture. Sir Francis was short in stature, very pleasing, though somewhat diffident, in conversation, and very modest as to his own talent. He left a munificent sum, the bulk of his accumulated fortune, for the encouragement of his art.

ALLAN CUNNINGHAM (1784—1842), son of a farmer, was born at Blackwood, Dumfriesshire, and educated to the usual extent of his class, among the presbyterians. The 'Predictions of Peden,' and 'The Pilgrim's Progress,' were his two great ushers in the path of knowledge until the age of eleven, when he was apprenticed to a mason. 'During the intermissions of labour,' writes Cunningham himself, 'I sought instruction with diligence, and even enthusiasm.' My father was fond of literature, a beautiful relater of traditional stories, and gifted with a particular grace in reciting old ballads and songs. He dabbled in verse himself a little, and acquired the friendship and esteem of Robert Burns, the poet, who was a near neighbour. He had gathered a small library, into which I frequently ventured in search of instruction. I was also an attentive listener to the recital of legendary lore, the gladsome and the pathetic, the humorous and the devout, of which the Scottish peasantry are remarkably fond. Round the firesides of the farmers are still lingering many scraps and fragments of those stately romances and fine old ballads so common to Scotia; and it was among these traditions, at once chivalrous, superstitious, and curious, that I may say I received my education.' Allan, a boy of twelve, stood, in 1796, in St. Michael's churchyard, Dumfries, at the grave of his father's friend, Burns; saw the coffin of perhaps the only real lyric poet of Scotland lowered into the tomb; and witnessed the preparation for, and of course heard the effect of, the long-dreaded ragged volley fired by the

awkward squad, that had embodied itself to do honour to the memory of the ill-starred bard. While still working in his useful calling, Cunningham, like Terence in the grinding-house of the baker, devoted all his leisure moments to literature. One of his purchases at this period was a quarto copy of Walter Scott's 'Lay,' then an expensive book—some four-and-twenty shillings—and certainly more than the poet's week's wages. 'Marmion' followed; and Allan could, after perusing the latter, no longer contain his admiration, but paid a visit to Edinburgh, in the winter season, for the sole purpose of seeing the author—then Mr. Scott. He sought no introduction to the mighty minstrel, he thrust no volume of verse or supplicatory letter into his hands, but was content with merely casting his eyes upon the man who had contributed so much to his happiness. 'I have reason to remember Scott's house in North Castle-street,' writes Cunningham, 1829, 'for various pilgrimages I made before it with the hope of seeing the poet; and though I was gratified at last, I did not succeed until I had, in a manner, become acquainted with almost every stone which composed the front of the building. I did not know a soul in Edinburgh who could introduce me; or, rather, I had such a sense of my own unworthiness, as compared to so great a poet (Allan being already a rhymester), that I did not desire an introduction, but strove to see him, and peruse his face, without being put to the torture of conversation. I could have faced a battery sooner. On the third day of my pilgrimage. I had passed and repassed before the house several times, when, to my surprise, a lady looked out of a window in an adjoining house, and, calling me by name, desired a servant to open the door, and let me in. This was a person of some consideration in my native place, who was residing there with her family, and to whom I was slightly known. 'I saw you,' she

said, 'walking up and down, and thought you might as well spend your time here as waste it in the street.' I answered that I was not exactly wasting it; but that I had come to Edinburgh to see Walter Scott, and that I hoped, by closely watching his house, to see him pass in or out. 'This is an affair of poetry, I find then,' said the lady, with a smile; 'I cannot help you in it, for I have not the honour of his acquaintance, though his neighbour; but you shall see him, nevertheless, for this is about his time of coming home—and here he is!' What (I said) that tall stalwart man, with a staff in his hand? 'The same,' answered my friend, laying her hand on my arm—'speak softly. Why!' she continued, 'I protest he is coming here.' Scott, in fact, had passed his own door, walked up the steps of that in which I was, and announced himself with the knocker. He was instantly admitted. He was in some poetic revery doubtless, and had made a mistake. He no sooner saw the bonnets of three or four boys on the pegs where he was about to hang his hat, than he said, loud enough for us to hear him, 'Hey-day! here's owre mony bairns' bonnets for the house to be nine!' and, apologizing to the servant, withdrew hastily. Cunningham was still a mason, 1808, and a very skilful one, it is said, too—with wit and humour at will, a book in his pocket, a mass of stray reading in his head, and a kind word for every one on his tongue; but the moment was now coming for his rise in condition. Mr. Cromek, the engraver and F.A.S., visited Dumfries, 1809, in search of the remains of Nithsdale and Galloway song—the muse of Burns having convinced him, that the true Hippocrene lay in those districts; and applying to Cunningham, the poetic mason promised to attempt a collection of such relics, and send them up to the applicant. 'If you can effect that,' said Cromek, 'we shall both make our fortune.' The mason, however, found it easier

to pass a cheat upon the antiquary than to fulfil his promise; and accordingly sat down to write in the olden strain himself, with the intention of palming his verses off on the credulous Cromek, as the true remains of Nithsdale and Galloway song. Cromek had not been long in London, and 'Burns' Reliques' but a short time out, when Allan forwarded a small packet of 'genuine old song' to the house of the antiquary and engraver, in Newman-street, London. Cromek was all joy and gladness of heart on perusal; and more and more *gradually* arriving, to prevent detection, at length a goodly octavo volume was published by Cadell, with the following title—'Remains of Nithsdale and Galloway Song; with historical and traditional notices relative to the manners and customs of the Peasantry. Now first published by R. H. Cromek, F.A.S.' This was in 1810; and the work made at once some stir. Bishop Percy instantly, with his usual acumen, pronounced the whole a forgery; but Hogg and Scott, who seem to have been let into the secret by Cunningham, were, the former in admiration at the possibility of cheating 'a musty antiquary,' and the latter bent on doing what he could to promote the interests of the real author, and raise him from his toilsome situation. Although the great wizard's kind intentions towards the young poet were not realized, the issue was Allan's quitting his mason's occupation, and taking that (according to Samuel Johnson) best of all roads to a Scotsman—the road to London. Such was the pertinent or perhaps impertinent witticism of the great lexicographer; who, although professing a horror of puns and punsters, declared once, in a moment of hilarity, that, all attached as he was to the same great city, 'whither (as has been sung) all wise Scotchmen wend their way at last,' 'no flower had such charms for himself as a cauliflower, no garden was to him like Covent-

garden.' Cunningham arrived in the metropolis on the day that sir Francis Burdett was sent to the Tower—a day of confusion; and upon the vast crowds collected on the occasion, the vigorous mason looked with no small astonishment. But he was still compelled to seek a livelihood; and having at length engaged himself to Mr. Malcott, the London pavior, he laid down the flag-stones of Newgate-street, among his earliest southron tasks. At length his *genius* was noticed by Mr. Roche, editor of the 'Day' newspaper, who took him into his establishment as a reporter; and his pay being much higher, he sent for Miss Jean Walker, of Preston-mill, near Dumfries, the first and the last inspirer of his verse, and married her in the poet's church in Southwark—for the bones of Gower, Massinger, and Fletcher, all lie there. The death of Roche, and the little prospect of any rise in office, again turned Allan's mind to his original trade, which he wisely resumed under—no mason—but a nascent master in sculpture—the excellent Chantry. That admirable artist, however, was then poor and little known; and Cunningham served him truly and faithfully throughout his long and brilliant career, assisted him anxiously and ably, fought his battles everywhere, procured him commissions, and in short did every thing for him but make those inimitable busts and statues which left his studio. It was, therefore, justly thought by the friends of Allan, that when the great sculptor died, leaving 100,000*l.* in furtherance of the arts he had advanced by his genius, he should have bequeathed him more than he did—that is, more than an annuity of 100*l.* a year to Allan and his wife, and a reversion of 2000*l.*, which he did not survive to receive. The similitude of the early condition of both master and servant might, it was thought, have caused a more liberal feeling on the part of the former. While in the great sculptor's studio, Cunningham

forgot not that he was a literary professor—and his chief published works were, in succession, 'Songs,' the romance of 'Paul Jones,' an annual called 'the Anniversary,' a life of Burns, 'Lives of the British Painters,' and some running notes on the great painters of 'Major's Cabinet Gallery.' His death was very sudden, of apoplexy, at the age of 58, 1842. His English style is deservedly lauded, considering his northern no-education; and his 'Lives of the Painters,' though marred by an indiscreet use of rhetorical figures, will probably be his most enduring work.

JOHN MALCOLM, a distinguished diplomatist and historian, went at the age of fourteen as a cadet to India, and after distinguishing himself on many occasions, rose to the rank of major-general in the Madras army. He was subsequently appointed resident in the Mysur, and, at a later period, was sent as minister-plenipotentiary from the Anglo-Indian government to the court of Persia. He not only performed his diplomatic duties in a satisfactory manner, but collected an immense store of valuable information concerning the history of the Persians; and he has thrown considerable light on that portion of Persian history which is connected with Scripture relation. He was the first to prove beyond a doubt that the renowned Zoroaster was the scriptural Ezra. He was made a knight of the Bath by the prince-regent, and in 1818 received the command, military and civil, of central India. Sir John was next appointed governor of Bombay; but in 1830 he resigned that important post, and returned to England, where he died, 1833, greatly esteemed for his sagacity, penetration, extensive acquirements, and conciliating manners. Sir John's histories of Central India and Persia from highly valuable contributions to our oriental literary stores.

JEAN BAPTISTE JOURDAN (1762—1833), born at Limoges, was son of a surgeon. He entered the military



service of his country 1778, and, in common with the great body of revolutionary French aspirants, exercised his talent for creating turmoil, by joining the Americans in their revolt against England. After the peace he entered the National Guard, and embarked in trade; but in 1791 he was called to command a battalion of volunteers in the army of the north, and in 1793 was appointed first, general of brigade, and then general of division. He soon after received the command of the army of the Moselle, in the room of Hoche, and in June, 1794, gained the victory of Fleurus, whereby he became master of Belgium, and drove the allies beyond the Rhine. In 1803 Napoleon constituted him general-in-chief of the army in Italy, and in 1804 made him a marshal of the empire, and grand-cross of the legion of honour. Upon losing the very decisive battle of Vittoria, June 21, 1813, in the Peninsular war, Jourdan retired to Rouen, and there lived privately until appointed in 1814 commander of the fifteenth division. In this station he declared himself, on the rapid decline of his master's fortunes, in favour of the restoration of the Bourbons, took the oath of allegiance to Louis XVIII., and, when that monarch was compelled, by the return of Buonaparte from Elba, to remove to Ghent, gave up his command, and escaped to his private seat in the country. On the restoration of Louis, he again took the oaths; and he was constantly about the court until his decease, aged 71, 1833.

CHRISTOPH AUGUST TIEDGE (1752—1841), born at Gardelegen, in the territory of Altmark, studied the law at Halle, but, apprehensive of little success in that profession, accepted the post of private tutor in the family of Arnstadt, at Elrich, in Hohenstein, 1776. The excellent connexion by means of this family, raised him to a handsome competency, if not to affluence. In 1792 he became secretary to Domherr von

Stedern, a friend of the Arnstadt house; and though that personage died in the next year, his widow retained Tiedge in the same capacity, and left him, at her death in 1799, a handsome provision. The enriched amanuensis now travelled, and at Berlin recognised a friend whom he had first seen at the table of his Arnstadt friends, the baroness von der Recke. An intimacy, purely of the Platonic sort, hereupon commenced between the pair; and, though not in accordance with the ordinary allowances of society, it is confidently affirmed that their association was entirely free from the slightest suspicion of impropriety. With the baroness, Tiedge visited Italy, 1804, and remained there two years; and on their return to Germany, first Berlin, and then Dresden, became their place of regular abode. At the latter the baroness died, 1833, leaving her Platonic friend actually rich; and, with his extraordinarily calm temperament, he lived on until his ninetieth year, when death suddenly seized him, carrying him to the grave in five days, 1841. Tiedge is honourably styled 'the Nestor of German poesy;' and among his numerous lyric productions, his 'Urania,' a religious and didactic work, has fully established his fame. Indeed so highly regarded is the poet's memory at Dresden, that a 'Tiedge Verein,' or Tiedge 'institution,' has been lately founded in that capital, to bestow a literary prize every fifth year upon some youthful candidate for honours, and to make provision, in addition, for meritorious authors, who may have fallen into adversity in consequence of age and infirmities. Tiedge's 'Frauenspiegel' and 'Wanderungen durch den Markt des Lebens,' his elegies, and other productions, are replete with moral precepts, and have fairly earned him a niche among the departed German classics.

NATHAN ROTHSCHILD, a wealthy capitalist, (whose brothers in Vienna and Paris have been alike remarkable

for their riches, and have received patents of nobility for their aid, during the wars with Napoleon), was for many years the leader of Stock-exchange affairs in London. The rise of his family is attributed to the talent of his father, Joseph, a German Jew, who, during the French revolution, contrived to protect and use to advantage a large store of jewels and money, which had been placed in his hands by the prince of Hesse Cassel. When the French entered Francfort. Joseph buried the prince's property in a chest; but he did not hide his own, thinking, that if they found no money, they would be suspicious, and search more earnestly. The consequence was that he lost all his own money. When affairs became more tranquil, he took some of the prince's property, and transacted business with it. The prince had heard of the French cruelty in plundering Joseph, and concluded that all *his* money and jewels also were gone. Going to Francfort, he called on him and said, 'Well, Joseph, all my money has been taken by the French?' 'Not a farthing,' said the honest man, 'I have it all, and will return it with interest.' 'No,' said the prince, 'I will not have it for twenty years, and I will then take two per cent. interest for it.' 'I have referred (says the author of 'The Great Metropolis') to the late Nathan Rothschild being on 'Change. There he stood day after day, leaning against a pillar on the right hand, as you enter from Cornhill. He was a little monarch there; and the pillar in question may be said to have been his throne,—with this difference, that, while other monarchs sit on their wooden thrones, he leaned against his throne of granite. From that pillar he never moved. There he stood, nearly as stationary as the pillar itself, with his back resting against it, as if he could not have supported himself without its aid. With his note-book in his hand, he was always to be seen, during the usual hour of business, entering into

transactions of great extent with the merchants and commercial men of all countries. Little would the stranger, who chanced to see the prince of capitalists standing on the spot I have mentioned, have fancied, from his personal appearance, what an important influence he exerted on the destinies not only of Change, but of the country, and of Europe. Nothing could be more unprepossessing than his appearance. He always looked sulky. Any time I saw him, he always wore a great coat of a dark brown colour. He paid but little attention to his personal decoration. His tailor had no very difficult customer to please. It was one feature in his conduct on 'Change, that he never, except when engaged in business, entered into conversation with any of the thousands in the same place. There he stood, in the midst of the bustle, apparently as deeply lost in thought, and with as melancholy a countenance, as if he had been alone in the wilderness of shade referred to by Cowper, or had been himself the 'Last Man,' described by Campbell.' Mr. Rothschild was highly benevolent to the poor members of his (Jewish) nation; and his death, which took place while on a visit to Francfort, his native city, 1837, was a serious loss to many hundreds of them. But though in this best way lavish of money, he was in no other way so, and was exceedingly ready to detect a love of it in others. At a city feast, for instance, a gentleman observed in his hearing, 'that for his part, though he thought venison good he loved mutton better.' 'I knowsh why,' said Rothschild to his neighbour, 'it is because he does not like to pay the prishe:—it is becaush mutton's *sheep* and venshon's *deer*.' The total property of this capitalist was estimated, at the period of his decease, at five millions and a half sterling.

AUBERT DU PETIT THOUARS (1756—1831), was born of a noble family at the château de Boumois in Anjou,

and was made a lieutenant of infantry at sixteen. All his leisure moments were devoted to botanical pursuits; and when intelligence reached France of the loss of La Perouse and his companions, he resolved, with his brother Aristide, to go in search of them, hoping to add to his stock of plants by the expedition. The two brothers actually sold their inheritance to carry out their plan, and were prepared to begin the voyage, when an accident separated them. The ship that was to have taken them both, lay at Brest; and Aubert intended to botanize on his way from the capital to that port, but was seized when culling simples in a wood, as a political spy. The country was at the moment in a disturbed state, the period being that just antecedent to the outbreak of the Revolution. After a brief incarceration at Quimper, he found that his brother had sailed, and he took ship, hoping to come up with him at the Mauritius: Aristide, however, had again started thence; and finding himself without money and without friends, Aubert applied for employment to some wealthy planters, and remained in the Isle of France ten years. He now made those observations of nature, which are the basis of the numerous botanical works he eventually constructed; and a visit to Madagascar enabled him to bring into notice tribes of plants, some of them hitherto almost in genus unknown. He returned to Paris in 1802, and was appointed in 1806 director of the royal nursery-grounds in that capital; a post which he held with great credit until the closing of the grounds, a short time before his decease. He died, aged 75, 1831. Du Petit Thouars is chiefly to be admired for the ingenious speculations he ventures concerning the physiology of plants; and his views on the formation of buds, the motion and circulation of sap, and the final results of fruit and wood, notions often more curious than founded on fact, are those

which have gained him the largest share of applause. He wrote many strictly botanical works, wherein he classes the productions of the isles of France, Bourbon, and Madagascar; but his most interesting production is a miscellany, passing in review his own labours in the science, entitled '*Revue générale des Matériaux de Botanique et autres,—fruit de trente-cinq années d'observations,*' published 1819.

JOSEPH THURMER, born at Munich, 1789, turned his mind to architecture at the age of twenty-eight, visited Rome and Greece to study the remains of ancient buildings, and eventually settled at Dresden, where he was made chief professor in the school of design. He employed much of his leisure in bringing out works illustrative of the Italian style of Leo X., which he regarded as a standard of taste in the main; and he has left a large collection of designs, which are allowed to prove his high talent and originality. He died, aged 44, 1833. The only public building executed by Thurmer at Dresden is the post-office; but his abilities were so recognised by his pupils, that they, in 1838, five years after his decease, erected at the Academy of Arts, a bronze bust and monument to his memory.

MALIBRAN DE BÉRIOT (1808—1836), an accomplished singer, was born of Spanish parents at Paris, her maiden appellation having been Maria Garcia. It was in 1824 that her talents first attracted attention at the Opera-house, London; from which period she became a leading performer at the great musical festivals of the kingdom. Her sudden death at one of these, from excitement, grounded on too potent a zeal to distinguish herself, aroused the commiseration of all parties; and the decease of Malibran was regarded by the public with very marked concern. At the Manchester festival, September 14, 1836, she had given 'Sing ye to the Lord' with electrical effect, and then took part with Cara-

dori Allan in Mercadante's 'Vanne se alberghi in petto,' from *Andronico*. Her exertions in the *encore* of this duet were tremendous; and the fearful shake at the top of the voice will never be forgotten by those who heard it. It was a desperate struggle against sinking nature: it was the last vivid glare of the expiring lamp. She never sang again. The building rang with animated cheering; hats and handkerchiefs were waving; but the victim of excitement, whilst the echoes were yet in her ears, sank exhausted as she quitted the stage. She was bled, and removed to her lodgings, where she lingered in great pain until the 23d, and then expired, at the early age of 28. Perhaps the celebrated singer, Lablache, has best accounted for her death: 'Son grand esprit étoit trop fort pour son petit corps.' Her remains were interred first in the collegiate church at Manchester; but, after great clamour on the part of her husband and other relatives, (M. de Beriot having caused the good people of Manchester to suspect his motives, on account of his departure for the continent before his wife's funeral had taken place,) they were removed to Brussels. Malibran's voice was a contr' alto in character; but it extended to a range that was astonishing: she could descend to F and E flat below the lower C in the treble clef, and reach C and D in alt.

NICOLAI PAGANINI (1784—1841), born at Genoa, was taught the violin at a very early age by Giretti, of Naples, and had some instruction in counter-point from the celebrated Paer. At 15 he began to be hawked about by his mercenary father; who contrived to exhibit him as a prodigy, to the filling of his own pockets, in Milan, Bologna, Florence, Pisa, and Leghorn. At length of age, he travelled on his own account; and after appearing as a capital player in the private concerts of Italy and Germany, he settled at Lucca. Here Napoleon's favourite sister, Elisa Bacchiocchi, reigning princess of Lucca

and Piombino, greatly noticed him; and to please her court, he commenced that curious use of his violin, which has gained for him the undisputed title of its 'maestro.' Having afforded great delight by playing a concerto on only two strings, the princess expressed a wish to hear what he could effect on a single one; and Napoleon's birthday being at hand, he composed his 'Sonata Napoleon,' for the G string, and performed it on the festive occasion before the court. So surprising was the execution to the audience, that, when a cantata of Cimarosa followed immediately after it, with all due accompaniment, it produced no impression whatever. In 1833, the maestro visited London; and by his extraordinary exhibition of power there, and in Paris, he amassed considerable wealth, and soon again returned to Italy. He died, aged 57, 1841; and his body, we believe, remains still unburied—the strange conduct of the professor during life having, in addition to his calling, caused the church of Rome to refuse it interment in consecrated ground.

THOMAS TAYLOR, born in London, 1758, went, after being a short time in St. Paul's school, to live with a relative who held a post in the dockyard at Sheerness. He there, having full leisure, studied the Greek language, and aspired, though without pecuniary means, to give to the world translations of Plato, Aristotle, and at length of all the hitherto untranslated ancient Greek philosophers. For some time he had a clerkship in the banking-house of Lubbock and Co., London; but he at length threw up his situation, and lived on the patronage of such as took an interest in his peculiar views, of restoring the Platonic philosophy, discovering the perpetual lamp, and carrying out his plan of the translations. Mr. Taylor's most valuable accomplishment in the last-named portion of his labours, was 'Pausanias' Description of Greece;' though we are told that, after nearly

losing the use of his right hand by getting up the work in haste, he only obtained 18*l.* for it from the booksellers. During the last forty years of his life, this eccentric person resided in a small house at Walworth, on about 200*l.* per annum, derived from the patrons who furnished him with the means of printing, &c.; and he died, aged 77, in the theism of the ancient philosophers, 1835. He was twice married, and had several children; and he is said to have printed translations that amounted in the cost of getting up to 10,000*l.*—all books of a sufficiently unsaleable description.

SOVEREIGNS. — **TURKEY** — 1808, Mahmud II., Khan. **POPE** — 1823, Leo XII.; 1829, Pius VIII. **FRANCE** — 1824, Charles X.; 1830, Louis Philippe I. **RUSSIA** — 1825, Nicholas I. **SWEDEN AND NORWAY** —

—1818, Charles XIV. **DENMARK** — 1808, Frederick VI. **PORTUGAL** — 1828, Dom Miguel. **SPAIN**, 1808, Ferdinand VII.; 1833, Isabella II. Maria; Succession-War of Don Carlos. **AUSTRIA** — 1792, Francis II.; 1835, Ferdinand I. **PRUSSIA** — 1797, Frederick William II. **NETHERLANDS** — 1815, William I.; Separation of Belgium from Holland in 1831. **BELGIUM** — 1831, Leopold I. **PERSIA** — 1796, Futteli Ali Khan; 1834, Mohammed Mirza. **KAUBUL** — 1823, Dost Mohammed, usurper. **SIKHS** — 1798, Runjeet Singh. **CHINA** 1820, Taou-Kwang. **SARDINIA** — 1821, Charles Felix I.; 1831, Charles Albert Amadeus. **BAVARIA** — 1825, Lewis I. **WURTEMBERG** — 1816, William I. **SAXONY** — 1827, Antony I.; 1836, Frederick II. **HANOVER** — 1830, William IV. of Great Britain.

REIGN CLXXVI.

VICTORIA, QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

1837.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Her present most gracious majesty, whom may God long preserve to her loyal subjects, was born May 24th, 1819; and is the only child of Edward, duke of Kent (fifth child and fourth son of George III.) by Maria Louisa Victoria, daughter of Francis, duke of Saxe Coburg, and widow of prince Emich Charles of Leiningen. His royal highness died, 1820. Her majesty's education was superintended by Dr. Davys, since bishop of Peterborough; and she succeeded to the throne upon the decease of her uncle, William IV., June 20th, 1837. She was crowned June 28th, 1838, (on which occasion marshal Soult, the last of Napoleon's marshals who had contended with the British before the exile of Napoleon to Elba, officiated as ambassador-extraordinary from Louis Philippe of France); and on February 10th, 1840, her majesty espoused her maternal cousin, Albert, son of duke Ernest of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha—both parties being at the period in their twenty-first year. Their present issue are, Victoria-Adelaide, princess-royal, born November 21st, 1840; and Albert-Edward, prince of Wales, born on lord-mayor's day, November 9th, 1841: and their royal highnesses were baptized in the sacred water of the river Jordan, brought over by an officer of the Syrian expedition. The genealogical descent of our most gracious queen from Egbert, the founder of the English monarchy, who traced his pedigree from the deified Woden of the Saxons, is thus deduced; and it may be questioned if any other monarch can so accurately show consanguinity with the originator of his state. The dates refer to the commencement of the reign, commonly.

1. **EGBERT**, 828, married lady Redburgha, whose son

2. **ETHELWULF**, 838, married lady Osburgha, daughter of the great butler of England. Their son,
3. **ALFRED THE GREAT**, 872, married Elthelswitha, daughter of the earl of Mercia, and had by her
4. **EDWARD THE ELDER**, 901, who married thirdly Edgiva, daughter of a private gentleman, and had
5. **EDMUND**, 941, who married Elgiva, daughter of a private gentleman, and had
6. **EDGAR**, 959, who married secondly Elfrida, daughter of Olga, earl of Devonshire, by whom he had
7. **ETHELRED THE UNREADY**, 979, who by his queen, Elgiva, daughter of a noble named Theored, had
8. **EDMUND IRONSIDE**, 1016. That prince married Elfritha, the widow of a noble Dane, and by her had
9. **PRINCE EDWARD THE OUTLAW**, 1017, so called because of his expatriation and exclusion from the throne by Canute (as shown in vol. i.). He married Agatha, daughter of Henry III., emperor of the West, and had by her Edgar Atheling, who died without issue, and Margaret. The next in descent, therefore, was
10. **THE PRINCESS MARGARET**, 1057, who married Malcolm III., king of Scotland, by whom she had
11. **THE PRINCESS MATILDA**, 1100, who became the queen of Henry I. of England, youngest son of William the Conqueror, and thus united the Saxon and Norman houses. By Henry I. she had William, who died at sea without issue, and
12. **MATILDA**, 1135, queen of England in her own right, whose claim was disputed by Stephen. By her second marriage with Geoffrey Plantagenet, she had
13. **HENRY II.**, 1154, who married Eleanor, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, by whom he had
14. **JOHN**, 1199, who signed Magna Charta, and married secondly Avisa, daughter of the earl of Gloucester, by whom he had
15. **HENRY III.**, 1216, who married Eleanor, daughter of Raymond, earl of Provence, and had by her
16. **EDWARD I.**, 1272, the conqueror of Wales. He married Eleanor, daughter of Fernando IV., king of Castile, and her brother, king Alonso XI. was father of Pedro the Cruel. By her Edward had the unfortunate
17. **EDWARD II.**, 1307, who married Isabella, daughter of Philip IV. of France, and had by her
18. **EDWARD III.**, 1327, who married Philippa, daughter of the count of Hainault, in the Netherlands, and by her had
19. **LIONEL, DUKE OF CLARENCE**, born 1338, who married Elizabeth de Burgh, daughter of the earl of Ulster. By her he had an only child,
20. **THE LADY PHILIPPA**, born 1355, who espoused Edmund Mortimer, earl of March, and gave birth to
21. **ROGER MORTIMER**, earl of March, born 1375, governor of Ireland, who left issue by his wife, Eleanor Holland, daughter of the earl of Kent, among other children, a daughter,
22. **LADY ANN MORTIMER**, born 1396, who married Richard Plantagenet, earl of Cambridge, second son of Edmund duke of York, fifth son of Edward III.; and by him had only one child, who succeeded his uncle Edward, 1415, who died without issue, as
23. **RICHARD, DUKE OF YORK**, born 1410, coming to the earldom of March by the death of his father in the same year, 1415. Richard fell at the battle of Wakefield, in his contest with the heroic queen Margaret,

1460, aged 50, leaving issue by his consort Cecilia, grand-daughter of John of Gaunt, and daughter of Ralph Neville, first earl of Westmoreland, several children. The most eminent in history of these are, the second child, our king Edward IV.; the sixth, George, duke of Clarence, who was cruelly drowned in wine by that monarch, his brother; and the eighth, our king Richard III. The line of succession was maintained by

24. EDWARD IV., 1471, who married Elizabeth, daughter of sir Richard Woodville, of Grafton, Northamptonshire, and widow of sir John Gray of Groby, by whom he had, besides Edward V. and his brother, who were murdered in the Tower,
25. THE PRINCESS ELIZABETH, whom Henry VII. married 1486, and thus united the rival houses of York and Lancaster. By her king Henry had, previously to his son Henry VIII., a daughter,
26. THE PRINCESS MARGARET, born 1489, who married James IV. of Scotland, by whom she had
27. JAMES V. OF SCOTLAND, 1513, who had issue by his second wife, Mary, daughter of Claudius, duke of Guise,
28. MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS, 1542, as she is usually called; and that unhappy princess had, by her second husband, Henry Stuart, lord Darnley, James VI. of Scotland, who, by the will of Elizabeth, succeeded to the United Kingdom of England and Scotland, as
29. JAMES I. 1603; who, by his queen, Anne, daughter of Frederick II., king of Denmark, had, besides Charles I. and other children,
30. THE PRINCESS ELIZABETH, who espoused, 1613, Frederick V., the unfortunate count palatine of the Rhine, and king of Bohemia, by whom she had, after twelve other children,
31. THE PRINCESS SOPHIA, who married, 1658, Ernest Augustus, duke of Brunswick, himself lineally deriving from our king Henry II., thus strengthening the chain of descent. The duke was the first elector of Hanover, and left issue by his consort, Sophia,
32. GEORGE I., 1714, king of England after the Stuarts, who espoused Sophia, only daughter of George, duke of Brunswick and Celle, by whom he had
33. GEORGE II., 1727, who married Wilhelmina, daughter of John, margrave of Anspach, by whom he had, eldest of eight children,
34. FREDERICK LEWIS, PRINCE OF WALES, who married, 1736, Augusta, daughter of Frederick, duke of Saxe-Gotha. He died before his father, George II., who was succeeded by prince Frederick's son (the eldest of nine children),
35. GEORGE III., 1760. This estimable monarch married Charlotte, daughter of Charles, duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, by whom he had thirteen children, two of whom, George IV. and William IV. succeeded him on the throne but left no issue. The fifth child, and fourth son, of George III. was
36. EDWARD, DUKE OF KENT, born 1767, who married Maria Louisa Victoria, daughter of Francis, duke of Saxe-Coburg, and widow of prince Emich Charles of Leiningen, and dying 1820, left by his consort an only child,
37. VICTORIA, born May 24, 1819, succeeded her uncle, William IV., 1837: whom may God be graciously pleased long to preserve to her loyal subjects!

POLITICAL HISTORY.—England has possessed few queens regnant; and prominent among those few stands one, whose period of rule includes an especially interesting and important epoch of our history. 'The golden days of good queen Bess' will be admitted rightly designated, on one great account;

namely, for the restoration and the consolidation which Elizabeth's vigorous, however tyrannical, counsels effected of all those institutions which are, in a state, the foundation of social happiness, which produce the virtue of citizens, and which promote the glory of God. The unsettling which all establishments, political, religious, and moral, had experienced by the long wars of the Roses, succeeded by the sharp conflict of the Reformation, had rendered some such character as that of Elizabeth presented necessary in the ruler, for the bringing back of order, and the consummation of tranquillity. Happily no such cause existed for arbitrary dominion, at the moment of queen Victoria's mounting the throne of her ancestor, the great Egbert, as had prevailed at the time of her famous predecessor's accession; and the English people, essentially loyal, hailed with delight the occurrence of a solecism in the annals of their country—a female in her nineteenth year becoming ruler over them, and including under her dominion an hundred and twenty-five millions of subjects! So much did the natural feelings arising out of the circumstances of the youth and sex of the new sovereign prevail, that when her majesty, on the assembling of her first parliament, did not enter the house of lords from the robing-room quite so soon as is customary after her known arrival, a very general fear arose that she had become appalled at the thought of encountering the gaze of the assembled aristocracy—perhaps had fainted. When, however, she at length appeared, and had evinced her full possession of presence of mind, by smiling almost to laughter on seeing the extraordinary mode in which her loyal commons are compelled to rush into her royal presence, all apprehension was at an end; and when she had further, with 'silvery voice,' and only the emotion necessarily belonging to so great an effort, completed the accustomed speech, a murmur of applause was distinctly audible on every side.

The whig ministry of her uncle was retained by her majesty, viscount Melbourne being still premier; and at the moment of the accession, the country was at peace, not only with all Europe, but all the world. The first symptom of a contrary tendency was seen in the autumn of 1837, when the colonies of Upper and Lower Canada displayed a disposition to revolt. The rapid improvements which had for some years been taking place in the United States of America, from unexplained causes, had, by the year 1835, given those provinces a marked advantage over the neighbouring possessions of the British; and a discontented and revolutionary party in the latter soon declared such difference to arise from the superior mode of government adopted in the States. Monarchical institutions were therefore ridiculed, republican ones lauded; the authority of the governors of both Upper and Lower Canada was defied by the speaker of each house of assembly (*Bridwell* of Upper, and *Papineau* of Lower Canada); and all matters seemed ready for an explosion. The veteran and able governor of Upper Canada, sir John Colborne, was hereupon removed 1835, and sir Francis Head, of a more liberal caste, put in his place; but though the latter did all that a prudent and wise ruler could plan for the restoration of quiet (in which he perfectly succeeded, in so far as his own province was concerned), the rebellion at length burst forth, headed by one Mackenzie, who issued a proclamation, announcing that the moment had arrived for throwing off the hateful dominion of the mother country. The insurgents, principally Lower Canadians (descendants of the French), aided by American citizens, soon got possession of Navy Island, a British territory, situated a little above the Falls of Niagara, December, 1837. Captain Drew being directed by the governor to collect and command a flotilla of gun-boats and other craft to attack the island, an American force, under one styling himself general Van Ransallaer, continued day after day, while the flotilla was preparing, firing from Navy

Island upon the unoffending inhabitants of the Niagara frontier, though not a gun had been heard on the part of the British. A steamboat also, named the *Caroline*, was employed by the Americans in transporting to the island munitions of war, for the purpose of aggravating the insult which, in a moment of profound peace, they were perpetrating against her Britannic majesty's subjects; whereon captain Drew was directed to capture, burn, or otherwise destroy, the piratical vessel. At midnight, therefore, of December 26th, the gallant captain succeeded, in spite of a body of American riflemen, in destroying the chain cables which held the obnoxious boat to the shore, and, having set her on fire, sent her drifting down the falls of Niagara. In consequence of the difficulties which soon after presented themselves, the home government (lord Glenelg being the colonial minister), sent out the earl of Durham as lord high commissioner, with full power to crush the insurrection, 1838. So positive a display of firmness, followed by proper examples made of such leading rebels as could be caught, produced a temporary calm. Papineau, Bidwell, Rolph, Morrison, and Mackenzie (the last-named originally a pedlar, but the main cause of all the disturbance), escaped, and were outlawed. Some subsequent measures adopted by the lord high commissioner for the punishment of the rebels (especially his sanction of colonel Prince's summary execution of some prisoners), having been censured in the British parliament, the earl suddenly resigned his authority, and returned home; and the rebellion burst forth again with renewed fury. The good sense, however, of the Upper Province, and the organized state of the military bodies raised for the preservation of peace, especially of the yeomanry, together with the spirited conduct of the restored governor, sir John Colborne, again subdued the revolt early in 1839. When order had been thus restored, the English parliament resolved on the union of the Canadas, so that one house of assembly should henceforth legislate for the whole, and thus produce, it was hoped, an amalgamation of the two classes of colonists; and this resolution was accordingly carried into effect, 1840. In that year the Canadas were constituted an united province and colony, at the head of which, as in India, was placed a governor-general, styled 'Governor of Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island.' Each dependency meanwhile retains its own lieutenant-governor, who defers in all important matters to the governor-general. Mr. Poulett Thomson, created lord Sydenham, was the first governor-general; and he dying in consequence of a fall from his horse, 1841, sir Charles Bagot succeeded. Kingston is made the capital and seat of government of the united colony. The earl of Durham (John George Lambton, first earl) had suffered so much vexation from his Canadian embassy, that his health gave way, and he died shortly after his return to England, 1840.

Before Canadian matters were thus settled, the colony of Jamaica was seen in collision with the home-government. That island has long been regarded as the most valuable British possession in the West Indies; its annual exports to England being estimated at four, and the imports from England at three millions. On reference to vol. ii., p. 267, it will be seen that it has a governor, representing the sovereign of England, a legislative and executive council of twelve, and an assembly or commons, of forty-five members. On occasion, the governor and assembly have been at variance on the score of privilege; as when, in 1764, Mr. Littleton, then governor, took upon himself to discharge two persons, who had been committed by the house of assembly for a breach of their privileges; when, in 1808, the duke of Manchester, the governor, supported the objection of general Carmichael, the commander-in-chief, to be examined at the bar of the assembly; and when, in 1836, the marquis of Sligo, then governor, interfered with the assembly's

freedom of debate, by sending down a message on the subject of a bill pending between the assembly and council, and even prorogued the assembly. In all these cases, at the suggestion of the home-government, the point was conceded eventually by the governor. The unconstitutional conduct of lord Sligo was followed by his retirement; and sir Lionel Smith succeeded him in the governorship, 1836. In 1837 arrived a despatch from lord Glenelg, the British colonial secretary, proposing to the assembly an improved system of prison discipline in the island; and the house accordingly, during that year, instituted the proper inquiries in the gaols throughout Jamaica, with a view to carry into effect the wishes of the British minister. A committee had just been appointed to consider the returns resulting from the inquiries in question, when captain Pringle arrived in the island, as a commissioner appointed by the queen's government for the inspection of prisons in the West Indies generally; and he was authorised to make such inquiry into the actual state of the gaols of those islands, and to suggest such improvements, as might lay the foundation of a better system of discipline. This the assembly at once regarded (after having itself begun the inquiry), as an encroachment upon its privileges; and when captain Pringle returned to England without communicating to the house any report on the subject of his inquiries, the interference with its rights was yet more severely felt, but did not prevent its steadily proceeding to prepare a bill, in order to carry out the original design of the English ministry. Before that object, however, could be effected, a prison's-bill, which had passed the imperial parliament, was received by the governor, 1839; and great indeed was the ire of the assembly, on finding such to be the fact. There was assuredly some reason for feeling aggrieved at the uncourteousness of the proceeding; and, carrying on the face of it a tacit charge against the assembly, which was not their due, of being slow in looking to the interests of the island, the act was altogether indefensible. The house of assembly had not only shown a spirit of co-operation with, but had anticipated the British parliament in hastening the abolition of negro slavery, by putting an end to the apprenticeship system, its last remnant, which apprenticeship was a compensation afforded to slave-owners, lest the too sudden emancipation might seriously injure their property. Antigua had set the example, 1834, by relinquishing the boon altogether; and Jamaica was, therefore, not slow, if she did that in 1838, which she need not have done till 1840. She had besides, in 1834, prepared a plan for the improvement of prison discipline, which had been already acted on, and was in substance the same as the English act now sent them—which latter was, by command of the home-government, proclaimed, and stuck up on the doors of the assembly itself. The issue was that the assembly, although again and again convoked by sir Lionel Smith, resolved to abstain from the exercise of all its legislative functions, excepting such as were necessary to preserve inviolate the faith of the public creditor, until the queen's pleasure should be known 'whether her subjects of Jamaica,' said the fourth resolution, 'now happily all in a state of freedom, are henceforth to be treated as subjects, with the power of making laws as hitherto for their own government, or as a conquered colony, and governed by parliamentary legislation,' &c. The home ministry, on receiving intelligence of this angry demonstration, instantly resolved on forcing the assembly to submission; but after a series of long and warm debates, the good sense of their opponents, at the head of whom was sir Robert Peel, swayed the imperial parliament, and conciliation was again resolved on. With that view, sir Charles Metcalfé was sent to the island as governor, in the autumn of 1839; and the mild and conciliatory system of policy pursued by sir Charles, soon had the beneficial effect that might have been anticipated from so wise and prudent a measure.

Soon after this agitation of the colonies had commenced, circumstances occurred at home, which caused great anxiety for the internal peace of the kingdom. During the preceding reign, the bulk of the manufacturing labourers of England had adopted an extensive plan of organization, and, under the names of 'Trades' Unions,' met in vast bodies to consult on political, as well as business affairs; the Dorchester labourers, on one occasion, 1834, marching even through London streets to Whitehall, in number 30,000, to prefer their petition of grievances to the throne. But the ostensible object of the combination was the regulation of trade; in other words, to overawe their masters, the great manufacturing capitalists. With this view, each trade formed a lodge or class, consisting of ten or fifteen individuals; these classes assembled weekly, and selected delegates, who were to assist at provincial lodges, or associations, which met every month. These associations had in their hands the complete control of all the trades; they appointed delegates to a general assembly, which they called a congress, and the members of this *imperium in imperio* were bound to each other by secret oaths. They had their unstamped newspapers, by means of which they communicated with each other in every part of the kingdom; and they contributed to the formation of local funds, which were made available to their support whenever they chose to absent themselves from their ordinary occupations. On admission, an oath was taken by each member, to maintain 'the Charter of the People's Rights,' whence the faction obtained the name of *The Chartists*; and the sworn party was then directed not to be disobedient to the existing laws, but to labour to get them all repealed. The meetings of Chartists began to be held without molestation, when a member of the whig ministry had publicly acknowledged the assembling of persons for the free discussion of political questions to be the constitutional right of Britons; and at these thus licensed assemblies, doctrines of the most subversive tendency were maintained by argument, and applauded by enthusiastic multitudes. Those doctrines were rapidly propagated from town to town; and the final issue was to be the stopping of every mill, loom, and steam-engine in the country, in conformity with 'a new decree of congress.' This would not be insurrection: it would be simply passive resistance. 'The men,' said they, 'may remain at leisure; there is and can be no law to compel them to work against their will; they may walk the streets or fields with their arms folded; they merely abstain, when their funds are sufficient, from going to work, for one week, or one month, throughout the three kingdoms.' The combination was soon seen to produce the ruin of masters; and the Trades' Unions in some places actually offered to take into their own hands the establishments of two or three manufacturers whom they had driven out by 'passive resistance.' Should the day of general distress arrive, to which the Chartists look forward as the era of their felicity, they yet expect (for they still exist as a body) to be enabled to purchase, at a depreciated price, the everywhere abandoned factories, and mines, and fields; and then *labour will indeed be wealth*, which is the way in which they are pleased to understand that boasted axiom of modern political economists.

It was in July, 1839, that the leaders of the Chartists, becoming tired of the slow process of the passive-resistance system, attempted open violence. An effort was made in that month by a party of their underlings, to plunder the town of Birmingham; and several houses were gutted, and the furniture of them burned in the streets, before order was restored. In November of the same year, a Chartist mob, headed by John Frost, a linendraper, and recently a magistrate, attacked the town of Newport in Wales: the insurgents were an armed force of 5000 persons, chiefly labourers of the coal-mines and iron

works of Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire. The plea for the insurrection was, that one Vincent, a Chartist, had been rigorously treated in prison ; and it was resolved to release him, and make him 'king of the Hills.' The Hill district is of a mountainous character and triangular form, having for its apex a place called Risca, five miles from Newport, and its base being about fifteen or twenty miles from it. The country is intersected by deep gkens, watered by the various mountain streams ; it abounds in every part with mines of coal and of iron, which, of late years, have been worked to a very considerable extent ; so that, in a district where fifty years since there were scarcely any inhabitants, save the scattered huts of a few shepherds and mountaineers, there is now a dense population, amounting to 40,000 souls. Upon this labouring mass the Chartists tried their powers, both minatory and persuasive ; and the men of the Merthyr Tydvil iron-works became the most imposing portion of Mr. Frost's army. The mayor of Newport, however, Mr. Phillips, an attorney, contrived matters so well, that thirty soldiers (all that could be mustered,) under command of lieutenant Gray, placed in a room of the West-gate inn, at the entrance of the town, sustained the siege of the 5000 Chartists, led on by the rebellious linendraper ; and in about twenty minutes, after killing some ten or twelve of them, and wounding fifty others, put the remainder to flight. The soldiers were fired upon continually through the windows (on the ground floor) before they retaliated, and a fierce conflict at length took place in the passage of the inn, and at the doorway of the room in which the military were. At that door the chief slaughter of the rebels occurred. 'The main affair,' said (now) captain Gray, at the trial of Frost, 'occupied less than ten minutes, but the attack in the inner building continued to the last ; and whenever the smoke cleared away, the mob attempted to force our position.' The mayor, while opening a shutter to unmask the soldiery, was unfortunately wounded both in the arm and side ; but, on his recovery, he was presented to the queen, and knighted (as sir Thomas Phillips), and the people of Newport and its neighbourhood in every way testified their gratitude for his manly defence. Though a full moiety of that number of Greeks which aided the rebellious Cyrus in days of yore, the retreat of the Chartists was not half so glorious ; and their leader, being now Xenophon of the host, was seen to pass, holding a pocket-handkerchief to his face, and weeping like Niobe, in his way back, as he rushed into one of the copses of Tredegar-park, with the hope of eluding his pursuers. The stern hand of justice, however, prevented this : John Frost was captured, tried for treason, and, together with two of his associates, Williams and Jones, convicted in January, 1840. But a plea of an extraordinary kind was raised in the prisoners' favour. The indictment had been served on them, at the earnest request of their attorney, three days previously to the time fixed by the statute, thirteen days before the trial ; whereas the list of witnesses was delivered only ten days before the trial, the precise legal time. The fifteen judges sat on this and another quibbling plea ; but the conviction was nevertheless confirmed. The delay, however, which had occurred, the hydra-headed nature of Chartism, the original admission on the part of one of the ministers of the crown, that trades' unions were not at variance with the constitution, the fact of Frost having been appointed by them a magistrate, the consideration that all the deaths had been on the side of the rebels, and last, not least, the approaching marriage of the Queen, served to make the public understand how a commutation of the sentence passed (which was no less than that of hanging and quartering,) to transportation for life, ought to be received by it, if not with satisfaction, at least with complacency. A reprieve arrived at the cell of the convicts at Monmouth ; and in the night of

February 2, they were conveyed, without the knowledge of any but the conductors, to the nearest seaport, and thence embarked for Australia.

Ov' uom perdono, e non castigo aspetti,
Cade ogni regno; e ruinoso è senza
La base del timor, ogni clemenza—

wrote the immortal Tasso.

Hand in hand with the Chartist rebellion, and mainly accessory to its violence, was 'The Socialist Plan;' to which infidel and abominable system allusion is made elsewhere. In the year of the attack on Newport, a loose was given by the friends of free trade to the injurious habit of exporting British machinery. Much mischief had resulted from this practice towards the close of king George IV.'s reign; it was nevertheless persisted in through that of William IV.; and in 1839, the third of queen Victoria, English wheel and other work to the amount of 700,000*l.*, was thus sent out of the country, to aid foreigners in their competition with our manufacturers. The active rivalry that subsequently arose out of the proceeding to our own machine products, occasioned even certain radical members, once the intemperate advocates of free trade, to call for a suspension of the export system, and, it is to be hoped, not before it was too late. Nottingham lace, which had till now driven out everywhere the French lace, from the necessary higher price of the latter as being made by *hand* labour, was now made in France itself; and the result of this commercial insanity was the melancholy picture which the manufacturing districts in the midland counties soon exhibited—capital withdrawn, factories without workmen, an expiring trade, and penury written in every face. The consequent amount of emigrant labourers from Great Britain to Ireland in the following year, was no less than 119,000.

Although petty legislation has been too much the error of our day, the furthering of measures tending to preserve establishments which are the basis of national order, must be regarded as highly judicious. It was therefore a very creditable anxiety which in 1839 prompted certain members of the commons to put down trading and trafficking on the sabbath-day; and though an antagonist effort was made to obtain an enactment for converting it into a day of sight-seeing and secular amusement, 1840, it is matter of rejoicing that the sense of parliament was against the measure. We cannot but express our warm satisfaction at the failure of an attempt to change London, still abounding, thank God, with crowded churches, into a French metropolis—with all its pagan mummery of Elysian fields, pantheons erected to infidel philosophers and great scoundrels, and Père la Chaises for crowning the tombs of actresses and opera dancers with perennial chaplets; and we at the same time rejoice that there is but a small party in the commons, which hides its practical infidelity, in cases of this sort, by a profession of deep solicitude for the happiness of the lower classes of society.

It was at the opening of 1840 that intelligence was received of the success of our arms in the East; an Anglo-Indian force having succeeded in replacing on the throne of Kaubul, after an exile of thirty years, its legitimate sovereign, Shah Shujah, if the title 'legitimate' can be claimed by any modern oriental ruler. Of that affair, its policy, and its consequences, the particulars will be found in the history of Kaubul. In February of this year, Queen Victoria gave her hand to her cousin, the prince Albert of Saxe Coburg Gotha; and the next matters of interest were the passing of a bill to throw open the Irish municipal corporations in a way that catholic influence would eventually be (it was feared) predominant, and the introduction of a measure by lord Stanley regarding the registration of voters in Ireland. The latter was withdrawn. The affair that made most noise in the country was the resolute assertion of its privileges by the house of commons. That assembly

having agreed, in 1835, that all parliamentary papers and reports printed for the use of the house, should be rendered accessible to the public by purchase, at the lowest possible price, in order somewhat to defray the great annual expense of printing them, Messrs. Hansard, printers to the house, were granted the exclusive privilege of selling them. Under this resolution, a report of inspectors of prisons was offered for sale, in which, after stating that improper books found their way into Newgate, it added, that a work, published by Mr. Stockdale, of a most disgusting nature, was one of those books. The work professed to be a medical one; and Mr. Stockdale brought an action for libel against Messrs. Hansard, 1837. The case was tried before lord chief justice Denman, who observed, that whatever arrangements might be made between the house and any publisher, the publisher, in his opinion, who published that in his public shop, and especially for money, which might be injurious, and possibly ruinous, to any one of the king's subjects, must answer in a court of justice to that subject, should he challenge him for a libel. Damages of 100*l.* were thereupon awarded to Stockdale. The house, after some talk of infringed privileges, paid the damages, thus virtually admitting the legality of Stockdale's proceedings; and the consequence was a second and a third action, the last in 1840, against Messrs. Hansard, who, having been directed by the speaker of the house (during its recess) not to plead, suffered judgment to go by default. The court of Queen's Bench, thereupon, (under judge Patteson) gave damages against Hansard, 600*l.*; declaring not only that the printers had no right to publish any thing which might be considered libellous, but that the privilege of the house could not be sustained before any inferior court. The commons, however, conceiving that the privilege of publishing in question ought to be contended for, for the sake of every other privilege which had not been provided for in a similar manner, first committed the two sheriffs of London (Evans and Wheelton, who, in their official capacity, had called the court which decided the question), and then, in like manner, Stockdale, his son, and his legal adviser, to Newgate, for contempt.

The important affair of privilege having been settled thus by the strong arm, sir John Yarde Buller (viscount Melbourne being still premier) brought a charge against ministers, to the effect that they had lost the confidence of the country. The chief points of the member's accusation were, the ministers' want of firmness in maintaining the public peace, at that moment so grievously disturbed; their being everywhere found the supporters of agitation, Chartism, and irreligion; their shaking, for electioneering purposes, every institution of both church and state in England and in Ireland; and their alliance with the enemies of the established religion, dissenters, infidels, and Socialists, for the purpose of attacking all that was venerable, useful, and distinguished for its antiquity. Other members followed, blaming the ministry for their culpable negligence in appointing such a man as Frost, the convict-traitor, to the magistracy; and especially lord John Russell (the colonial secretary), for the imprudent encouragement given by him to the Chartists, in the summer of 1839, when he said, in a public speech at Liverpool, 'that every body of men ought to be allowed to meet, and declare their opinions as they pleased.' 'What was this (said lord G. Somerset) but a mere provocation to the Chartists to riot?' The debate lasted four nights; and at its close, there were for the motion 287, against it 308; leaving a majority for ministers of twenty-one. The holders of office who voted on the occasion being about forty-three, the ministry could have no reason to boast of the issue. On one especial score, the whig rulers were acknowledged to deserve censure. By their new marriage-act, which at once lowered the sacred bond to a mere civil contract, they broke down the

sanctity of the nuptial tie, and directly aided the views of the infidel Socialists, many of whom lost no time in obtaining office as 'superintendent registrars.' The other chief domestic occurrences of the year were, a bill passed by ministers to equalize the postage duties to one penny, let the distance to which letters had to be conveyed in the United Kingdom be great or small; the consequent necessity (from the deficiency in the post-office revenue) for a new assessment of the renters, &c. of the kingdom, with a view to augment the annual amount of assessed taxes—ten per cent. being then superadded to the total of those taxes; and, lastly, a fanatical attempt made by one Oxford to take the life of her majesty, which providentially failed. As respects the increase of assessed taxation, no impost presses harder upon the people than that upon windows, and particularly in large towns. It is impossible to live in the midst of them, without daily seeing examples of widows, elderly maidens, and small housekeepers, whose life is rendered miserable by this perpetual and recurring exaction. They dread the visit of the tax-gatherer, as a malefactor does that of a constable; and, with some creditable exceptions, they are dealt with by the collectors much in the same tone and spirit. It must therefore be always deemed one of the worst offences of the whig government, that they substituted the ten per cent. increase on the assessed taxes, in order to make up for the loss in the postage. The new survey then directed to be made was open to the same objection. It aggravated the burden of the window-tax, and ferreted out every new occasion and new subject, to add to its amount. It was so much new rigour where there was too much of it before; and was equivalent to the re-measuring of the farm by a harsh landlord, who already takes more rent than his distressed tenant is able to pay.

In June of this year, the British in India commenced a war with China (see *War with China*); and in the autumn, the English and Austrian combined fleets deprived Mehemet Ali, the usurping pacha of Egypt, of Syria, and restored it to the Ottoman Porte. (See *Syrian Expedition*.)

In February, 1841, the house of lords was occupied in the trial of James, earl of Cardigan, for felony, that peer being accused of having shot at captain Harvey Tuckett in a duel, in the preceding September, on Wimbledon-common. After a costly fitting-up of the house for the proceeding, the earl was acquitted. In the next month occurred the seizure of Mr. Macleod, a British subject, by the American government, under circumstances which very nearly involved the two countries in war. Mr. Macleod had been present when the shameful attack upon Navy Island took place, December, 1837; and while peaceably visiting in the United States, three years after that transaction, he was suddenly made prisoner by the New York authorities, as one of those concerned in the destruction of the steamboat *Caroline*. In vain did the British government assert that the responsibility of that act lay in themselves; a vast deal of hectoring concerning the necessity of 'the freest nation on earth' resenting so gross an attack upon its liberty, was the only return of the Americans; and Mr. Macleod was arraigned, in October, at Utica, as a traitor, by the New Yorkists, whose power, by the federal union, is independent, under circumstances, of the Washington assembly. It needs no argument to prove that, by the law of nations, any neutral vessel aiding the rebellion of subjects against their sovereign, is most justly punishable by the offended power when caught; and after a week's trial, the prisoner was acquitted. While the case was pending, a party of British soldiers passed the American border, and boldly arrested one Grogan, an American, who had committed depredations within the English pale, and kept him as a sort of hostage; but he was honourably given up, on their demand, to the American government, on the day Mr. Macleod's trial commenced.

It was clear, at the opening of the year, 1841, that the whig ministry were rapidly losing the confidence of their own friends; and though every effort was made to retain the good opinion of the multitude, by measures of the most popular character, all was in vain. Beyond their foreign policy having effected nothing either for the dignity or security of the state (their system having been to neglect the trade with Europe and the interests of our colonies, while they calculated on beating distant and Eastern nations into an alliance and commerce with us, even warring for that end against mandarins and hong-merchants in lieu of governments and kings, and fitting out a costly naval expedition, which could have no right of capture), their domestic rule had been singularly marked by such a want of acquaintance with the business of state-affairs, as had caused a deficiency of 9,000,000*l.* in the exchequer: in other words, they had, by the trial of various delusive schemes for relieving taxation, and filling the treasury, added that amount to the national debt. This, in a period of peace, would make any people, especially a great commercial one, look more to the financial abilities, than to the politics of their rulers; and as the cause of reform was acknowledged by its oldest admirers to be already 'at a wonderfully low ebb,' even the radicals looked for benefit from a change of ministry. The tenacity with which, notwithstanding the frequent defeats their measures now began to meet in the commons, the Melbourne administration clung to office, is among the most extraordinary events of their history; and it was with some show of justice that they acquired from the public, for so unusual an unwillingness to regard its wishes, the appellation of *the adhesive ministry*. The soul of that cabinet had all along been lord John Russell, its leader in the commons; but neither that lord's acknowledged abilities, nor the suavity and sang-froid of the noble premier, could at last resist the tremendous tide of opposition which set in against it. It is but fair to say that the church-establishment party was the grand mover of that tide. The strength of the cabinet had been chiefly derived from the support of men of extreme opinions; and that support having been purchased by a subserviency to party views and party purposes, was withdrawn, now that each new effort of the whigs to legislate (characterized, as such efforts were, by a struggle to carry the principles of the reform-bill to almost a revolutionary extent) appeared likely to plunge the country into greater debt and difficulty. The Melbourne administration having accordingly resigned in August, 1841, through its inability to resist the church party, sir Robert Peel, the head of the conservatives, was directed by her majesty to form a new cabinet; and the change was very generally approved by the nation. It was highly gratifying to have men in power characterized, not as attached to a system like that of their predecessors, wherein steady moderation had no place, but as the rejectors of all extreme views of whatever kind, as the champions of no particular interests, and as feeling bound not to give to any class a triumph at the expense of another. By identifying themselves with no party, they at once relinquished the applause of a faction; and they thus might look with confidence to the final approbation of that common-sense and valuable class of politicians, who judge of measures by their fruits.

Sir Robert Peel, once more premier, as first lord of the treasury, commenced his career by putting in a new form the great and difficult question of the late ministry—an amendment of the corn-laws. The Melbourne cabinet had contended for a fixed duty; but sir Robert's plan of a sliding-scale was adopted, as shown in the events of the reign. The manufacturing and agricultural interests usually come into fierce collision on this subject; the master-traders contending that the corn-laws have always, while protecting the land-owner, presented an insurmountable barrier to their accumulation of wealth. It was, however, shown in the debates on the present occasion,

that, notwithstanding the alleged pressure of the corn-laws, immense fortunes had been made, some of them no less than 2,000,000*l.* during the last twenty years. And again, the cry of the manufacturers, 'that agriculture is more indebted to them than they are to agriculture,' is a most fallacious one; since it is clear that whatever the land receives from the consumer (be it greater or less in amount) is expended in such a way, that, far from injuring the manufacturer, the circulation which it sets in motion is the acknowledged source of the best promoter of the revenue, *the home-trade*—while it is also the direct reservoir and prop of labour, through the most numerous, the most wealthy, and the most important channels.

The birth of a prince of Wales, in the month of November, was regarded with extreme interest throughout the United Kingdom, no less than eighty years having passed since the occurrence of a similar event. The close of the year was clouded by the discovery of an infamous fraud on the government, practised by Mr. Beaumont Smith, of the exchequer department, who had been long in the habit of issuing duplicate exchequer-bills to the public, signed in the ordinary way by the comptroller-general (lord Monteagle), so that, unless any two bills of the same number should by chance be seen together, no notion of a forgery could exist. To the holders of the false duplicates the loss was very extensive, when the trick was once discovered; as some hundreds of thousands of pounds were thus refused to be liquidated by the government. Mr. Smith was sent off to a penal colony; but this by no means either compensated the losers, or convinced the public that there had not been some gross neglect of officers acting under the former administration. Throughout the whole of this year there had been a grievous monetary paralysis in the United States of America, the government of which became in the autumn little other than bankrupt; and very lamentably numerous were the failures of country banks throughout England at the same juncture, though in no way concerned with the trans-atlantic crisis. In consequence of a reduction of duties, in the early part of the year, on salt, sulphur, and barilla, the kelp-trade in Scotland was so much injured by the substitution of British alkali, that no less than 40,000 Highlanders were reduced to poverty, and petitioned parliament to provide them the means of emigration.

The first matter of domestic interest in 1842, was the visit paid by Frederick William IV., king of Prussia, to queen Victoria, in January, on which occasion he stood sponsor at the baptism of the prince of Wales. One inducement of his majesty to visit England, was to settle the Jerusalem bishopric question, as elsewhere related; and a prelate, who had been recently ordained by the archbishop of Canterbury for the mission, was sent to Syria in February of this year. In March arrived intelligence of an awful massacre of the Anglo-Indian troops in Kaubul, consequent upon an insurrection of the hill-tribes, as related in the reign of Shah Shujah. The method proposed at the moment by sir Robert Peel to recruit the lowered finances of the country, served in some measure to keep the public mind from feeling that lamentable event as it deserved, or at least compelled a postponement of its full consideration; until time was given, by the wearing out of a Kaubul winter, to ascertain our actual amount of detriment. Sir Robert's plan was to impose a general income-tax of nearly three per cent., affecting the profits of professions and trades, as well as real property; and as a set-off against an impost justly abhorred for its inquisitorial nature, and which a former government had been compelled to abandon, as only justifiable during the pressure arising from a continental war, an almost unlimited permission was to be granted for the importation of colonial and hitherto prohibited foreign goods, almost to the abolition of that protective principle,

whereby our country has, as on all hands acknowledged, risen, under God, to her present extraordinary greatness. The 'tariff' of low duties was to compensate the payers of the income-tax, by diminishing the cost of the common articles of food ; but the opposition of the English graziers and other agricultural capitalists to the consequent importation of continental and other live-stock, and of foreign salted provisions, was very inimical to the premier's project of finance-restoration. The chilling remembrance, however, of the suffering occasioned by ten years of whig mal-administration, which had involved the country so seriously in fresh debts, prevented any organized hostility to the ministerial arrangement ; and indeed, since desperate diseases are allowed to require desperate remedies, we know not what method of filling an exhausted treasury more rational could have been devised, than that of sir Robert. The onus might perhaps, with greater justice, have been limited to real property, since the burden must fall fifty times more heavily on the man making a thousand a-year by the uncertain gains of a precarious profession, than on him deriving a thousand a year from his hereditary freehold or other landed estate. The premier's measure was at length carried ; and while perhaps its best feature was the care it evinced for colonial interests, its worst was the not insuring any promise from continental and other foreign countries, of a beneficial return for the marked advantages it was bestowing upon them. The next most interesting proceeding of parliament was lord Ashley's bill for preventing the employment of females in the English mines, a matter which ought to have been agitated and settled before negro slavery, which it exceeded in severity, had been made the subject of inquiry ; since the evil had existed unnoticed for nearly a century.

In the summer of 1842, in consequence of the distressed state of the manufacturing towns (Stockport, &c.), a public subscription was promoted by the Queen's Letter ; a most objectionable measure, inasmuch as it virtually called on the already too highly taxed parishes of one part of the country to pay up the deficient poor-rates of another. The sheer causes of the distress were, the vast increase of manufactured produce under an extended system of machinery, the want of foreign buyers, and the necessary displacing of manual labour. However machinery may operate, in the long run, towards the cheap and abundant production of articles of comfort and necessity, and therefore towards the extension of our foreign trade, and a consequent larger demand for home labour, still the first and immediate effect of such a sudden application of improved steam-work as took place in 1841-2 in Great Britain, must be to displace a considerable amount of present manual labour, by largely and unnaturally augmenting the stocks of manufactures. Many attempts were made in this year, by lord Denman especially, to obtain a freedom from the responsibility of an oath by various classes of dissenters ; while sir John Easthope, in the commons, argued that the same parties were not bound to support, by paying rates, a church, from which the law allowed them to remain separate. Both champions of the enemies of the hierarchy, however, were defeated. Surely, our constitution being composed of church and state, the same obligation attaches upon all classes of subjects to uphold the one as the other ; and the toleration allowed to dissenters, and which enables them to enjoy their own forms of worship, by no means necessarily comprehends a dispensation from rendering the common-law payments to the establishments of the country. Lord chancellor Lyndhurst's enactments for law-reform were amongst the most sensible arrangements of this period ; and the practice of the county courts, proceedings in lunacy, and the bankrupt laws, are all likely to be amended by his lordship's unremitting labours.

In the month of August, 1842, commenced another outbreak of the Chartists, who, under pretence of taking up the existing quarrel between the master-manufacturers and their men, regarding wages, tumultuously overran the counties of Lancashire, Yorkshire, Cheshire, and Warwickshire, and forcibly compelled the men to desist from work. In a short time the mills and mines and works of all the manufacturing districts were thus stopped. The names of the chief leaders were Cooper, McDouall, O'Neil, and Feargus O'Connor. Many of the turn-out labourers joined the mob, and in like manner intimidated other workmen; and many houses of the gentry, and of others who actively opposed such outrageous proceedings, were burned by the insurgents. At length the military were sent by the government to aid the police in the towns of Manchester, Birmingham, Stockport, Blackburn, Preston, Wigan, and Halifax; and after a life or two had been lost at Preston by the firing of the soldiers, the operatives were everywhere seen returning to their employ. So wise was the Roman caution, in popular tumults, '*Continuo culpam ferro compece.*' Many of the Chartist preachers were apprehended, and certainly not too severely punished by imprisonment, for their unceasing attempts to demoralize and render discontented and unhappy, the labouring classes of the nation. As respects the disagreement between the manufacturers and their men, much blame was to be attached to the masters; who, in order still further to lower the rate of their men's wages, had united in an agitation scheme, called the Anti-corn-law League, to force upon the government an abolition of those protective measures which are so essential to the agricultural interests in the matter of foreign grain importation. The manufacturers would, in a word, have continental and other foreign corn brought into the country, like water, free of all impost, caring not, so long as they should become enriched by their abstractions from the pay of their labourers, what should be the result to the vast mass of farmers in the land, and to the great landed proprietors; who would be by the measure, the former actually ruined, and the latter reduced one-half in amount of income—all to be eventually visited, by the inability of the hitherto wealthy to relieve the poor, upon the poor. So cruel an attempt of the manufacturing upon the agricultural interest will, we firmly trust, never again, for the nation's sake, be plotted. It is but the fable of the members warring against the belly; and the result of such madness we all know.

In this year was settled the long-pending American boundary question, under the auspices of lord Ashburton, and commissioners appointed by the American government; and the price of land instantly improved in the debatable portions of territory, emigrants crowding thither from all quarters to make purchases, and to *locate*. No happier event could have occurred for either country than this, at a time when Great Britain was oppressed by her population, and America at a standstill as regarded finances. A new field was in a moment opened for English emigration. And here it must be noticed that much of the recent distress in the manufacturing districts had been owing to the great competition existing among workmen thrown out of employ by the system of over-production. Such competition necessarily lowered the general rate of wages; and that at length to a degree far below the standard of support. Emigration on a large scale was the only remedy for so serious an evil: and, in addition to the opening offered by the settlement of the boundary question, the government was acting most wisely at the same juncture, as regards colonial interests. A positive regard had just been evinced by sir Robert Peel's cabinet for the welfare of our colonies. For some years before that premier's new accession to office, 1841, it had been the fashion with the government to consider the colonies of the nation as so many tiresome communities, making undue claims upon the mother-

country. Political doings imitate social or economic ones a great deal ; and as there is often seen a tendency in the heads of families, through either an unwillingness to give up their old sources of gratification, or a notion that their station in life requires it, to care as much about their visiting friends as they do about their children, and their children's interests, so is the case with mother-countries and their colonial offspring. The excuses for this neglect on the part of the mother-country are, that continental nations, old folks of their own standing and notions, must be treated handsomely, for old acquaintance sake, and must be kept in good humour for the sake of mutual interests ; and too often it follows that the children's privileges are all thus yielded up to strangers. In 1842, however, the new 'tariff,' as we before hinted, paid an especial attention to colonial rights, as paramount to the claims upon us of foreign states ; and at the same time bishops were at once consecrated for the newly-erected emigrant settlements, and sent out. Thus, while the commerce of the colonies was left unrestrained to run into its natural channel, and the means of acquiring wealth was afforded to the colonists, the settlements had the blessings of a church also awarded them ; whereby the government of them would be consolidated, and their best interests secured. In days of yore, when a country was first settled, it was abandoned to itself, and compelled to find its own means of rising to importance ; and many early governors of colonies were little other than men who made a market of the struggling emigrant. As to a church establishment, that was never dreamed of ; and it was left for missionaries, of any faith, and of any country, to bestow on the people a religion. We are therefore acting judiciously at last ; and in keeping our colonists members of the Anglo-Catholic church, we are insuring not a little their fidelity as subjects.

On August 29, 1842, her majesty, accompanied by her royal consort, prince Albert, left London on a visit to her Scottish subjects. The attention shown to the illustrious pair by the nobility, gentry, and people generally, from the moment of their landing at Edinburgh to their quitting it a fortnight after, must have been most gratifying to their youthful sovereign ; who saw the ancient castle halls of Caledonia crowded with forms of beauty and valour as in days long gone by, and the hills and valleys covered with bands of noble clansmen, habited in their respective tartans, and thoroughly armed, not to meet in fierce collision, as in Jacobite times, but to hail unanimously their southron queen's arrival among them. Her majesty and consort re-landed at Woolwich, September 17.

It was in the month of November that the most gratifying intelligence from India and China reached England at the same moment. That from China announced that a war, begun certainly in injustice, had been closed in every respect advantageously to the nation ; while that from India declared the fall of Ghuzni and Kaubul a second time to the British arms, together with the release of the prisoners so treacherously entrapped by the Afghans in the preceding year. Such providential successes were very properly acknowledged, not only by illuminations and other popular rejoicings, but by the offering up of thanks in solemn prayer to the God of battles, and the Author of all Good.

The year 1843 was ushered in by an atrocious deed, which, if not originating in treasonable arrangement, had all the character of seditious intention. Mr. Drummond, the private secretary of the prime minister, while walking home from Downing-street, was shot in the back, at Charing-cross, by one Macnaughten, and expired of the wound in a week after, January 25. The assassin was subsequently tried for the crime ; but a plea of insanity being set up for him, and the testimony of medical witnesses establishing the fact of his labouring under that form of madness termed *monomania*, he was

acquitted of the murder. It is with regret, for the honour of the British nation, that we have to close our outline of its annals with so anti-English an occurrence.

EVENTS.

CAPTURE OF KOSTANTINEH, October, 1837.—This city, the ancient Cirta, and capital of Massinissa, the Numidian ally of the Romans, has, from its peculiar situation and character, remained comparatively safe from the ravages of both war and time to the present day. The French in Algiers, annoyed by the hostility of a place which furnished a secure retreat to infesting Arabs, sent marshal Clausel against it, November, 1836, with 7000 of Napoleon's veteran troops. But no sooner had their march commenced, than the weather exhibited, even in this torrid clime, all the chilly features of the wintry north. Having encamped on the mountain-tops, within two days' march of Kostantineh, a terrific snow-storm began, the cold became intense, and numbers of the men perished in one night. But the heroes of an hundred campaigns held on: they forded rivers, bore hunger and thirst, and never faltered till they formed under the walls of Massinissa's city. Wonderfully protected by nature, this majestic fortress seemed invulnerable, save at one point. A ravine, sixty yards wide, presented as scarp and counterscarp a perpendicular rock, alike unassailable by open escalade or secret mine. Having gained the plateau, it was found impossible to bring up the artillery: it was actually buried in the mire. At this critical moment the Arabs made their first attack upon the assailants from the gateways, bridge, and surrounding houses; and a band of Turks rushed boldly from the town, and disputed every inch of the approach. These last the French drove back; but the severity of the weather, the sufferings of the army, and the horrors of night, occasioned the besiegers to commence a retreat, which continued for many days, the Arabs pursuing and harassing them until their escape

into Bona. Nothing daunted, however, by this reverse, the French troops, under general Damvremont attacked the city again in October, 1837; and on the 13th of that month it was carried by assault, after a desperate conflict. Damvremont fell, by a cannon ball; and Achmet Bey, the governor, retired from the place with his soldiers as the French entered.

When the inhabitants found that their town was lost, many mounted their horses, and issuing from the gate, Bab Yedid, dashed at a gallop down the steep declivity, into the road which leads to Milah; but the great mass of the population, especially the women, aged, and children, endeavoured to escape from the fate they supposed awaiting them, by climbing down the rocks, and lowering themselves by ropes to the gardens below the town. A very large number succeeded; and the whole valley was alive with a multitude, which, from being almost entirely clothed in white, appeared like an army of spectres. Very many, however, perished by the ropes breaking, the feet slipping, or by the wearied hands being no longer able to maintain their hold; and the ravines at the foot of the rock, on which the town stands, were filled with the bodies of such as had rolled from above, forming mingled heaps of dying, wounded, and mutilated persons. 'Entering a house (says a French eye-witness) whose passage was paved with the numerous corpses of valiant defenders, we found a door locked. The soldiers burst it open. A woman had locked herself in, with two children—one at the breast: she thought herself secure; but we found all three killed, a shell having entered by the ceiling, and burst in the room. The mother and the little boy appeared to have been, when struck,

at different extremities of the room. We found them in the centre, embracing each other with the grasp of death; and the train of blood showed that they had dragged themselves thither from opposite corners. The floor was strewn with toys and playthings, all dabbled in blood.'

SOUTH AUSTRALIA COLONIZED, 1837, BY THE ENGLISH.—With the authority of government, captain Hindmarsh, with a party of emigrants, took possession of this district of New Holland, 1837, and the population now amounts to about 3000. An excellent association has been formed, termed the South Australian Company, with a subscribed capital of 300,000*l.*, which has already invested a large sum in the purchase of land from the government commissioners, in the conveyance of labourers and stock to the colony, and in the establishment of whale-fishing vessels, &c. The site fixed on for the capital (34. 57. south) is a gently rising ground on both banks of a pretty stream, commanding a view of an extensive plain, reaching down to the sea; over which the south-west breezes blow, nine months out of the twelve, with invigorating freshness. At the back is a beautiful wooded country, extending six miles to the base of the first range of hills, which are capped by a high wooded one, called Mount Lofty, 2400 feet above the level of the sea. To the left, the hills gently curve round, and trend down to the coast at nine miles from the proposed town, enclosing a plain country, in some places open, in others wooded, having a few small streams and fresh-water lakes. To the right, the hills run in a northerly and easterly direction, continuing for thirty or forty miles, where they appear to sink into a plain. The country along their base is well timbered: nearer the coast it is open and level. The first governor and commander-in-chief was G. Grey, esq., 1840.

COMPLETION OF THE NATIONAL GALLERY, 1837.—For many years the best specimens of British paint-

ing and sculpture had been annually exhibited to the public in very inconvenient apartments at Somerset-house; but in 1834 a building was commenced at Charing-cross, for the sole purposes of displaying and collecting into a permanent gallery the productions of artists; and this, under the direction of Mr. Wilkins, was completed, and called the 'National Gallery, 1837.' The eastern wing of the edifice has been granted to the Royal Academy of arts, for the annual exhibition of new productions, as formerly shown at Somerset-house, and the western for the permanent display of the pictures known as 'the national gallery,' and long before exhibited in Pall-mall, its nucleus having been the gallery of pictures purchased by government of Mr. Angerstein, for 57,000*l.*

HEROISM OF GRACE DARLING.—The Forfarshire steamboat, with sixty persons on board, was wrecked on its passage from Hull to Dundee, on the night of September 6th, 1838. A portion of the crew had escaped in the larboard-quarter boat, before the vessel went to pieces on a rock near the Fern islands. Half the ship (for it split into two parts) was carried away, with all who were on the stern and quarter-deck, and in the cabin; while the fore-part remained fast on the rock, crowded with passengers. The captain and his wife, with many others, were soon washed away; and no hope remained to the survivors, who, as each victim disappeared from the rock, screamed in agony for that aid which they could scarcely expect. The outer Fern lighthouse, however, was in a direction that enabled Grace Darling, daughter of the keeper of the building, to hear the shrieks of the unfortunate people, whenever the roaring of the wind and waves, and the pouring of a heavy rain would permit; and though darkness prevailed, she roused her parent, and getting everything ready by daybreak, put a boat off for the rock. The sea was then running terribly high; and probably

nothing but the high spirit of his daughter would have induced the keeper to venture on so dangerous an expedition. Grace Darling, with matchless intrepidity, seized the oar herself; and by her aid the father managed to conduct the frail skiff towards the rock, to which, as they neared it, they discovered human beings still clinging. The issue was that the whole who had survived, nine in number, were brought in safety to the light-house, and thence ultimately to the mainland. The public very properly noticed and rewarded the heroism of her to whom, under God, the lives of nine persons were owing; and it is not unlikely that the name of Grace Darling will be handed down to a remote posterity. Life, however, is a frail possession at best; and she who had so nobly risked her own to save that of her fellow-creatures, began to feel the wasting fever of consumption early in the year 1841. As change of air was recommended, the amiable patient was removed from her father's sea abode at Bamburgh to Wooler, and subsequently to Alnwick; and in the latter town lodgings were especially taken for her by those patterns of noble excellence, the duke and duchess of Northumberland (Hugh, third duke, and his consort, the governess of her present majesty, when princess Victoria), who condescendingly saw every arrangement made for her comfort. But human aid, however disinterested and powerful, was vain; the ruthless affection rapidly gained ground; and Grace, emaciated, and scarcely able to travel, was conveyed carefully back to her paternal home at Bamburgh, and there soon after expired, in her twenty-fifth year, October 20th, 1842, leaving the little fortune of 700*l.* (acquired by her heroism) to her aged father.

MURPHY'S WEATHER ALMANAC.—It was in 1838 that a meteorologist, named Murphy, attempted to predict with precision the weather and temperature of each day throughout

the year. Boldly attacking Newton's law of gravitation, he substituted in its place that of solar and planetary reflection, asserting the unity of meteoric action in the solar system. If, however, the truth of Mr. Murphy's hypothesis be dependant on the fulfilment of his weather-predictions, nothing could be more unfortunate for the projector; and 'as unprophetic as Murphy' has already become a proverb. If the author be in earnest, and sincerely devoted to physical research, he should reflect that what a Newton has projected, and a Laplace has proved, must be gainsayed with becoming modesty, and not with the flippancy of his preface, wherein he boastfully quotes, in his support, the unbelieving (in all that is important) Diderot and Voltaire, and jests upon the learned M. Arago. It is the sin of this day to confound cause and effect. Thus a Swedish naturalist gravely writes volumes to inform us that man was made for the benefit of the vegetable world, that he is only a link in the grand chain of vegetable existence, and merely necessary to its perfectibility. In the same way Mr. Murphy would make those consequences and effects of physical laws, known under the appellation of 'Meteorology,' to be the cause of all things, and the basis of a new theory of the universe. With his *clouds* he would extinguish the fame of a Newton, as Aristophanes did that of a Socrates. But, in all good humour, let the meteorologist be told that his book is at least the best *story-book* extant: that it may do for the 'gulls' who, like himself, are 'out in all weathers'; and that few lovers of science can see him assail the *gravity* of one of Britain's greatest philosophers, and at the same time preserve their own.

ASSASSINATION OF THE EARL OF NORBURY.—As this worthy nobleman was walking with his steward in his grounds at Durrow Castle, Ireland, on New Year's day, 1839, giving directions for the felling of some

trees, some villain, from a hedge which skirted a plantation, fired at and shot him in the left breast. The earl lingered until January 3rd, when he died, to the inexpressible grief of his tenantry, and of the poor in his neighbourhood, who had ever, in the most ample manner, partaken of his bounty. The object of the murderer, who escaped, has never been fathomed. The earl, Hector Toler, was son of lord chief-justice Norbury, who was advanced to the earldom in 1827.

COMMENCEMENT OF THE MODERN RURAL POLICE SYSTEM, 1839.—Every parish throughout England had managed its own constabulary force until 1829; in which year an act was passed to place the whole of the day and night peace-keepers of the metropolis (excepting those of the actual city of London) under two commissioners, who were to devote their whole time to their duties. The old classes of day and night constables being abolished, the new metropolitan police force is now nearly as follows. An inspecting superintendent, with a salary of 400*l.*; a superintendent, 300*l.*; sixteen sub-superintendents, 250*l.* each; seventy-three inspectors, 118*l.* 6*s.* each; 349 sergeants, 63*l.* 14*s.* each; 250 constables, first class, 54*l.* 12*s.* each; 2527 of second class, 49*l.* 8*s.* each; 269 of third class, 44*l.* 4*s.* each. The sergeants and constables are allowed a blue livery, with a certain quantity of coals; and the total number of the force is 3486, who are placed in divisions, each division being employed in a distinct district day and night. The total cost of this force is about 225,000*l.* per annum; one-fourth of which is paid out of the public revenue, and the remainder by the respective parishes. In 1839 the horse-patrol was incorporated with the metropolitan police; and it consists of seventy-one mounted men, who are employed within a distance of several miles from London, chiefly at night. In the provinces are occasionally found establishments of rural police,

begun first by the Cheshire magistrates, 1829; but there is a natural jealousy among Englishmen regarding the enrolment of half-military bodies, possessed of the inquisitorial power allowed under circumstances to policemen, strangers also as they commonly are to the neighbourhood where they are located. In periods of real danger, they might, being a regularly trained force, surpass in efficiency the old constabulary power, and its emergent aid of 'special constables'—too often 'Dogberrys' all, who, from their ignorance of the art of war, were happy to let the persons they were to apprehend escape—'thankful that they were rid of so many knaves;' and they might, on the very same account, prove dangerous to the liberty of the subject. The city of London is allowed to manage its own police force, at an annual cost to the corporation, for 120 day police, of 9000*l.*; while the respective wards pay no less than 42,000*l.* per annum for their numerous night-watchmen.

The apparent success of the London police arrangements, induced a wish in the minds of the supporters of 'the centralizing system,' that the plan should be extended to every place in the kingdom, with reference to a superintending board of commissioners in London. But the difficulty of reorganizing the old rural constabulary, and the jealousy of the local magistracy respecting the interference of the supreme executive (the majority of such justices as were willing to have a paid rural police, wishing it to be placed under their exclusive control), has hitherto retarded the adoption of any uniform police system throughout the country. In 1839, however, an act passed the two houses, enabling the magistrates to appoint county and district constables, thus leaving the improvement of the police to their discretion; and by that, and an act of 1840, a paid police force may be employed in any parish within fifteen miles of Charing-cross, according as

such justices deem such force needful—each parish defraying the cost of its complement of men from its rates. There can be no question that the institution is a necessary and good one for great cities; but when applied to rural districts, especially to the villages around London, the benefit derived to the community is very small, and the moral effect often seriously injurious. A body of idle, neatly dressed young men in blue, are met prowling about the roads and lanes all day, with hands behind them, and, for mere dint of something to do, stopping each unattended young woman to engage her in conversation. On the bleaker part of high roads, where they are most wanted, they are seldom seen; and the public may walk over two or three miles of such ground, where no ale or beer house is, hoping in vain for their appearance. Meanwhile the fences of our fields are carried away, day-robberies of plate or other chattels take place at our houses by trampers, just as (or as some are inclined to think more than) was the case before our suburban places were burthened with the heavy tax for a rural police's support—(500*l.* per annum in place of 100*l.* for the old village constables)—and even when thieves are apprehended, it is oftener by the church-beadle of the parish, than by any of the blue-coated fraternity.

GREAT STORM OF WIND.—On the night of January 6, 1839, occurred one of the most violent of these physical phenomena ever remembered in Great Britain and Ireland. The latter country suffered on the occasion more even than England, scarcely a house in Dublin and other large towns being without injury to the roofs of buildings; while whole plantations, with their aged trees, which had stood the winds of centuries, were swept away. Many edifices on exposed spots in Ireland were wholly destroyed. In Liverpool and Manchester the loss was immense; and in London the churches and more unprotected buildings, as well as

house-roofs generally, suffered very considerably. It was not so much a hurricane, as the continued bursting along through the night of a most powerful north-west wind.

EQUALIZATION OF POSTAGE RATES.—In December, 1839, the general postage of inland letters was reduced to fourpence, be the distance what it might, while the threepenny London post was brought down to one penny, as in king Charles II.'s time. On January 10, 1840, a still greater reduction was made, the general charge for letters passing any where about Great Britain and Ireland being only a single penny.

COMMERCIAL DISTRESS.—At the close of 1839, much commercial difficulty existed, arising from four principal causes: 1. A recent repeal of the usury laws (lord Lansdowne's measure), as respects the discount of all bills not exceeding twelve months, by which an end was put to those friendly loans and mutual accommodations, which bankers and wholesale dealers had been long accustomed to render to such as dealt largely with them. Money dealing being rendered a distinct and gainful trade, persons were converted into lenders on usury, who had hitherto regarded the practice with horror; while the distressed retailer was thrown upon the systematic bill-broker, who could extort whatever interest he might please. The mischief was peculiarly manifest in Leeds, Manchester, Sheffield, and other great manufacturing towns, where it had been usual to make weekly discounts for the purpose of paying the wages of the workmen. 2. Two years' short harvests necessarily raised the price of all articles of living, and, in country parts especially, greatly aggravated the burden of poor-rates, and other impositions on the land. 3. The several concurrent circumstances of the failure of many large commercial and banking-houses in the United States of America; the stoppage in the China trade, on account of the opium question; the

almost insolvent state of Portugal; and the like situation of all South America save Brazil and Paraguay.

4. The great diminution of the *circulation* (or the quantity of money current in trade), as regards the Bank of England, and joint-stock and country banks in general.

THE EGLINTOUN TOURNAMENT.—Archibald, earl of Eglintoun, who in 1819 succeeded to the title and large estates of his grandfather, attempted in 1839 (being then 25 years of age), to revive the chivalric pageant of a tournament, at his castle of Eglintoun, near Irvine, in Ayrshire. After the most splendid and costly arrangements for the display, Wednesday, August 28, was the day fixed for its commencement; and no one who was in attendance could conceive the display inferior in grandeur to the romantic exhibitions of the middle ages. The armour worn on the occasion was no tinsel fabrication, but the same which had braced the sinewy persons of knights, when tourneys were in fashion. Some of it was as venerable as the day of Richard II., and none of it more modern than that of Elizabeth. The earl himself, as lord of the tourney, wore a most beautiful suit of brass armour, and the crest surmounting his helmet contained a magnificent plume of blue and yellow feathers, while his horse was caparisoned with blue satin and cloth of gold. Lord Alford was cased in a suit of polished steel; and Lord Craven in one of pure Milan steel (worn at Crecy by lord Hyllton), burnished blue, and at parts exquisitely wrought in arabesque; while the casque or helmet, weighing alone forty pounds, had the bars of the vizor of solid gold. But every other knight's suit was equally worthy of description: and the wonder was, from the weight of the detached pieces, how the knights of this 'degenerate day' not only could support them, but preserve their agility, and use that active exertion which the practice of the lists requires. The marquis of Londonderry, as king of the tourney, was ha-

bited in a splendid tunic of green velvet, over which was a crimson velvet cloak, trimmed with gold and ermine: on his head was a crown, covered in with crimson velvet, and his horse had trappings of the same material. Some of the heralds' and pursuivants' costumes were very splendid; there was a jester on a charger, habited and furnished in admirable keeping; every knight had golden stirrups and spurs; and there was an immense store of pennons, lances, trappings, and all the detail of ancient war. The stands, capable of containing above 2000 spectators, were built with great elegance on one side of the lists, whilst, on the opposite side, a strong fence divided the ground for the general spectators from the lists; and as it is calculated that full 60,000 persons attended and were accommodated, immense preparations had consequently been made for that purpose. The queen of beauty and love, the supreme judge of the tourney, whose duty it was to crown the successful knights with laurel, was lady Seymour, who, during the lists, sat on a throne in a magnificent pavilion, to receive the homage of the combatants.

After such costly preparations, it was unfortunate that a season, one of the wettest on record, should go far to damp the splendour of the subsequent exhibition. Between, and often amidst the frequent showers, the first day's tilt was accomplished; the next day, Thursday, was so pouringly wet, that nothing could be done save within the walls of the great knight's castle, where all was crowd, and splendour, and bustle; on Friday a second day's tourney was accomplished, in spite of occasional storms; and Saturday turning out more boisterous than ever, the chivalric display was declared, by sound of trumpet, to be at an end. This is too cold, and heartless, and utilitarian a day for the author of mere great displays to receive his full meed of praise; but there can be but one opinion of the noble lord Eglintoun's

conduct on this occasion. The projection of so beautiful an exhibition, which recalls to mind the softener and civilizer of man during the semi-barbaric middle ages—that spirit which tempered the despotism and mitigated the ferocity of the feudal system—HIGH CHIVALRY—demands the nation's gratitude; while the young lord's unbounded hospitality to his immediate guests, and his consideration for the countless crowds that flocked from all parts of the kingdom to witness the gorgeous spectacle he had, with such munificence, prepared, proves him a most illustrious knight, and true English noble.

SOUTH POLE EXPEDITION.—On September 30, 1839, the Erebus and Terror left Margate for a magnetic survey of the seas surrounding the south pole, under the command of captain J. C. Ross and captain Crozier. They made St. Helena, January 31, 1840, leaving a party there to construct an observatory; and then proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope, where they arrived March 17. The two ships quitted that point April 4; and having completed their object, reached Hobart Town, in Van Diemen's Land, after the lapse of an exact year, April 1841. The gallant commander of the expedition thus wrote to England, on his arrival in her Australian colony: 'Under all circumstances, it appeared to me that it would conduce more to the advancement of that branch of science, for which this expedition has been more especially sent forth, as well as for the extension of our geographical knowledge of the Antarctic regions, to endeavour to penetrate to the southward, on about the 170th degree of east longitude, by which the isodynamic oval, and the point exactly between the two foci of greater magnetic intensity might be passed over and determined, and directly between the tracks of the Russian navigator, Bellinghausen, and our own captain James Cook, and after entering the Antarctic circle, to steer south-west-

erly towards the Pole, rather than attempt to approach it directly from the north on the unsuccessful footsteps of my predecessors. Accordingly, on leaving Auckland islands on the 12th of December, 1840, we proceeded to the southward, touching, for a few days at Campbell island, for magnetic purposes, and after passing amongst many icebergs to the southward of 63 deg. latitude, we made the pack-edge, and entered on the Antarctic circle on the 1st of January, 1841. This pack presented none of those formidable characters which I had been led to expect from the accounts of the Americans and French; but the circumstances were sufficiently unfavourable to deter me from entering it at this time, and a gale from the northward interrupted our operations for three or four days. On the 5th of January, we again made the pack about 100 miles to eastward in latitude 66 deg. 45 min. S., and longitude 174 deg. 16 min. E.; and although the wind was blowing directly on it, with a high sea running, we succeeded in entering it without either of the ships sustaining any injury; and after penetrating a few miles we were enabled to make our way to the southward with comparative ease and safety. On the following three or four days our progress was rendered more difficult and tedious, by thick fogs, light winds, a heavy swell, and almost constant snow-showers; but a strong *water* sky to the south-east, which was seen at every interval of clear weather, encouraged us to persevere in that direction, and on the morning of the 9th, after sailing more than 200 miles through this pack, we gained a perfectly clear sea, and bore away south-west towards the Magnetic Pole. On the morning of the 11th of January, when in latitude 70 deg. 41 min. S., and longitude 172 deg. 36 min., land was discovered at the distance, as it afterwards proved, of nearly 100 miles, directly in the course we were steering, and therefore directly between us and the Pole. Although the cir-

cumstance was viewed at the time with considerable regret, as being likely to defeat one of the more important objects of the expedition, yet it restored to England the honour of the discovery of the southernmost known land, which had been nobly won, and for more than twenty years possessed by Russia. Continuing our course towards this land, for many hours we seemed scarcely to approach it; it rose in lofty mountain peaks of from 2000 to 12,000 feet in height, perfectly covered with eternal snow; the glaciers that descended from the mountain summit projected many miles into the ocean, and presented a perpendicular face of lofty cliffs. As we neared the land, some exposed patches of rock appeared; and, steering towards a small bay for the purpose of effecting a landing, we found the shore so thickly lined for some miles with bergs and pack ice, and with a heavy swell dashing against it, that we were obliged to abandon our purpose, and steer towards a more promising-looking point to the south, off which we observed several small islands; and on the morning of the 12th, I landed, accompanied by commander Crozier and a number of the officers of each ship, and took possession of the country in the name of her most gracious majesty queen Victoria. The island on which we landed is composed wholly of igneous rocks, numerous specimens of which, with other imbedded minerals, were procured: it is in latitude 71 deg. 56 min. S., and longitude 171 deg. 7 min. E. Observing that the east coast of the main land trended to the southward, whilst the north shore took a north-westerly direction, I was led to hope that by penetrating to the south as far as practicable it might be possible to pass beyond the Magnetic Pole, which our combined observations placed in 76 deg. nearly; and thence, by steering westward, complete its circumnavigation. We accordingly pursued our course along this magnificent land, and on the 23d of January, we reached 74 deg.

15 min. S., the highest southern latitude that had ever been attained by any preceding navigator, and that by our own countryman, captain J. Weddell. Although greatly impeded by strong southerly gales, thick fogs, and constant snow storms, we continued the examination of the coast to the southward, and on the 27th we again landed on an island in latitude 76 deg. 8 min. S., and longitude 168 deg. 12 min. E., composed, as on the former occasion, entirely of igneous rocks. Still steering to the southward, early the next morning, a mountain of 12,400 feet above the level of the sea was seen emitting flame and smoke in splendid profusion. This magnificent volcano received the name of Mount Erebus. It is in latitude 77 deg. 32 min. S., and longitude 167 deg. 0 min. E. An extinct crater to the eastward of Mount Erebus, of somewhat less elevation, was called Mount Terror. The main land preserved its southerly trending, and we continued to follow it until, in the afternoon, when close in with the land, our further progress in that direction was prevented by a barrier of ice, stretching away from a projecting cape of the coast, directly to the E.S.E. This extraordinary barrier presented a perpendicular face of at least 150 feet, rising, of course, far above the mast-heads of our ships, and completely concealing from our view every thing beyond it, except only the tops of a range of very lofty mountains in a S.S.E. direction, and in latitude 79 deg. S. Pursuing the examination of this splendid barrier to the eastward, we reached the latitude of 78 deg. 4 min. S., the highest we were at any time able to attain, on the 2d of February; and having on the 9th traced its continuity to the longitude of 191 deg. 23 min., in latitude 78 deg. S., a distance of more than 300 miles, our further progress was prevented by a heavy pack, pressed closely against the barrier; and the narrow lane of water, by means of which we had penetrated thus far, became so com-

pletely covered by rapidly forming ice, that nothing but the strong breeze with which we were favoured enabled us to retrace our steps. When at a distance of less than half a mile from its lofty icy cliffs, we had soundings with 318 fathoms, on a bed of soft blue mud. With a temperature of 20 deg. below the freezing point, we found the ice to form so rapidly on the surface, that any further examination of the barrier, in so extremely severe a period of the season, being impracticable, we stood away to the westward, for the purpose of making another attempt to approach the Magnetic Pole, and again reached its latitude, 76 deg. S., on the 15th of February; and although we found that much of the heavy ice had drifted away since our former attempt, and its place, in a great measure, been supplied by recent ice, yet we made some way through it, and got a few miles nearer to the Pole than we had before been able to accomplish, when the heavy pack again frustrated all our efforts, completely filling the space of fifteen or sixteen miles between us and the shore. We were this time in latitude 76 deg. 12 min. S., and longitude 164 deg., the dip being 88 deg. 40 min., and variation 109 deg. 24 min. E. We were, of course, 160 miles from the Magnetic Pole. Had it been possible to have approached any part of this coast and to have found a place of security for the ships, we might have travelled this short distance over the land, but this proved to be utterly impracticable; and although our hopes of complete attainment have not been realised, it is some satisfaction to feel assured, that we have approached the Magnetic Pole more nearly by some hundreds of miles than any of our predecessors; and from the multitude of observations that have been made in both ships, and in so many different directions from it, its position can be determined with nearly as much accuracy as if we had actually reached the spot itself.

PHOTOGENIC DRAWING (from

photos-genos, a springing from light) was the ingenious invention of Mr. Fox Talbot, 1835, although it was not promulgated until 1839. Placing upon the table of a camera-obscura a paper steeped in a chemical solution (said to be chloruret of silver), the landscape represented thereon by the glasses of the instrument became *fixed*, being the first instance, as the inventor facetiously observes, of a house painting its own portrait. The design is thus reversed (that is, what is on the right hand in the natural object is on the left in the copy) and left white; and the surrounding portion of sky, &c. is dark, with accurate gradations of shade. The objects in the design must of course be at rest, or no impression is retained; but when any impression is made, it is far more accurate than the pencil of the living artist can effect. M. Daguerre, of Paris, lays claim to a similar discovery; and that gentleman again is said to have been indebted to the labours of the late M. Nicpie, of Chalons-sur-Saone, who, when in this country eighteen years ago, made known the discovery to our Royal Society; but as he declined to tell the process by which he accomplished it, his memorial could not be received. Becoming a sort of partner with M. Daguerre, the latter, in 1839, announced his system of 'Heliography' to the Parisians, who have since called it, in his honour, 'Daguerreotype.' It is however acknowledged that both Mr. Talbot's and M. Nicpie's discovery were original inventions.

SPREAD OF SOCIALISM, 1839.—A party of unsettled and deistical men had long laboured, throughout the manufacturing towns of Great Britain, to inculcate new views of human nature, human life, and human society; but they first became known as an influential body in 1839. All hitherto promulgated religious creeds were declared by them spurious; and the world was soon to be convinced of the possibility of man's

attaining to a perfection in moral habits on this (by them declared *sole*) side of the grave. With the title of 'Socialists' did this atheistical and anti-social knot of men set forth a newspaper, called 'The Moral World;' and some of their leading sentiments were, that rewards and punishments, in any ethical arrangement, must be discarded, as unworthy the dignity of man; that marriage must be abolished, as being a fetter upon human reason and liberty, and a mere remnant of the barbaric ages; that suicide is, under circumstances, a justifiable act; and that all government, and especially the institution of property, are intolerable impositions upon our race,—inasmuch as the light of reason and common sense require that all property should be in common. In order to make this anarchical system produce fruit, it will scarcely be credited that, in the densely-populated cities, such as Manchester, loads of tracts have been distributed by the Socialists every Saturday, filled with blasphemy, sedition, and indecency, for the perusal of the labouring classes on the sabbath-day; that school-books have been issued from the same diabolical fountain of evil, filled with moral poison for the youthful mind; that blasphemous and indelicate songs have been printed for children, to teach the infant tongue to overflow with the outpourings of impiety; that copy-books have been disseminated, for the purpose of conveying the like poisonous instructions to the rising generation of infant poor; and that laboured attempts have been particularly made to corrupt the morals of the *females* engaged in the factories, and in domestic establishments, by the profuse circulation of printed incitements to profligacy and crime.

The originator of the education-part of the Socialist scheme, so far as the omission of religion, and the utilitarian portion goes, is alleged to be Mr. Robert Owen, formerly of Lanark. Born of humble parents at

Newtown, Montgomeryshire, 1771, he left his native place for London, 1781, and was, after some little time, employed in the haberdashery shop of Messrs. Flint and Palmer. He next repaired to Manchester, and entered into the service of Mr. Satterfield, a highly respectable manufacturer of that city; but he soon quitted that gentleman's employ to commence business (though yet a boy) on a limited scale, on his own account. His plan of making machinery and spinning cotton, in partnership with a Mr. Jones, not answering, he obtained a situation in the spinning-manufactory of Mr. Drinkwater, of Manchester; and after a stay there of four years, he commenced a new cotton-spinning house, first as a partner with Messrs. Moulson and Co., and then, under the title of 'the Charlton Twist Company,' with Messrs. Borradaile and Atkinson, of London, and Messrs. Barton, of Manchester. In 1799, the party purchased on interest, the mills at New Lanark, belonging to Mr. Dale, whose daughter Mr. Owen soon after married; and as Mr. Owen took the lead at this new residence, the schools which had been established there by the former proprietor, with a view to give the children of the factory a *religious* education, were converted into utilitarian ones, to the exclusion of all studies that might tend to carry the infant mind above the thoughts of this world. The result, however, by no means proved that Mr. Owen had shown 'the Fall' a fallacy; and, after expending much time, money, and pains, worthy of a better cause, his Lanark establishment was obliged to be broken up. On returning from a consequent trip to America, the Socialist coryphæus visited Ireland, and made attempts to inculcate his opinions among the emerald islanders; and, happily with no better success than attended him in that expedition, he has since, in the island of his birth, exerted himself to the utmost to gain proselytes.

THE SYRIAN EXPEDITION, 1840.—The four allied powers, Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, having at length resolved to aid their old ally, the sultan of Turkey, against his encroaching and rebellious viceroy, Mehemet Ali, who had, on his seizing the pachalik of Syria, signified his intention of keeping that province and Egypt as hereditary possessions, a combined English and Austrian fleet was sent out in the autumn of 1840, to blockade the whole coast of Syria, from Scanderoun down to Alexandria itself. Admiral Stopford being the chief naval commander, commodore Charles Napier, who had distinguished himself in securing the throne of Portugal to Maria II., was permitted to head the land-attacks. Beyrout, the ancient Berytus, near the hills of Lebanon, then the fortress of Gebail, and subsequently the ancient Tyre and Sidon, fell chiefly to Turkish forces headed by English officers. As it had been long known that the Christian Syrians had silently hoped for some change of politics which should bring the English to their shores, and make them their protectors, as in the case of the Ionian islands, the Druses, under their Emir Bechir, 16,000 fighting men (see *Druses*), instantly came over to the allies. The taking of Sidon was a sudden affair. The place was attacked by Napier, Sept. 25, with about 1500 Turks and English marines; and after firing shot and shell from his five ships for two hours, he succeeded in making a breach. While the British sailors, with admirable presence of mind, were engaged in their perilous task of landing the troops, the commodore, in one of the Gorgon's boats, had got under the breach, and, up to his arm-pits in water, made a scaling-ladder of the shoulders of his crew. He succeeded in mounting; but had scarcely time to look in, before a discharge of musketry from an opposite building compelled him to abandon the attempt, and leap back into the sea. The troops from the other boats, however, were entering one by one through a small aperture a little to the right of the commodore; and coming up to the main breach, they enabled that gallant leader, and the soldiers of several following boats, to land. It was a sharp struggle; but after destroying a great number of the Egyptians, who neither gave nor would receive quarter, the allies succeeded in killing Hassan Bey, their chief leader. That devoted Moslem headed a sortie from a house; and having three several times fired upon the marines, fell, pierced by three musket-balls. No man could have served a cause with more desperate fidelity; and from a prisoner it was ascertained that he had cut down one of his own men, who, at the last moment, had attempted to hoist a white flag in token of surrender. About 500 Egyptians instantly laid down their arms; 1500 soon after surrendered to an Austrian party, which had entered by another breach; and in two hours more, the garrison capitulated. During the conflict, Napier was most daring. Running along the tops of the houses, waving his hat on the point of his sword, he hallooed and cheered on his men in the streets beneath; and in 48 hours from his quitting the admiral's station to make the attack, he was by that commander's side again to receive his congratulations on his success. The next object of the allies was to dislodge Ibrahim Pacha, the son of Mehemet, and generalissimo of his armies, from the neighbourhood of Beyrout; and accordingly concentrating their forces, they attacked him on the 10th of October. Soliman Pacha was in conjunction with Ibrahim; but the joint armies were completely defeated by the allies, the standard of Ibrahim captured, and the two commanders with difficulty escaped to the mountains, having with them only about 200 cavalry. The town of Beyrout (the fortress of which only had been, up to this time, in the hands of the

allies), was now entirely evacuated by the Egyptians, the allies entered it, and preparations were next directed against Acre. On receiving intelligence of their successes at Constantinople, the sultan, Abdul Medjid, deposed from his pachalic and outlawed Mehemet Ali, greatly to the disappointment of the French nation; which, on account of the advantages derived to its colony of Algiers from the pacha's friendship, had at once refused to join in the Syrian expedition. The French even, under the radical ministry of M. Thiers, menaced war against England in particular, fortified Paris, and repaired the works of all her frontier towns; but the succeeding cabinet of M. Guizot, a conservative, and in the confidence of Louis Philippe, and especially the arrival of Napoleon's remains from St. Helena, turned away the attention of the most fickle people on the face of the earth from the future to the past; and France was, for a whole week, absorbed in reflections upon her quondam dream of ruling supreme in Europe, under the auspices of the second Charlemagne.

The sultan had just constituted the English captain, Walker, a *pacha* of his empire—the first instance on record of a Christian being so advanced—when the attack upon the most important fortress in Syria, St. Jean d'Acre, began. It seems that the combined fleets had regarded their force incompetent to take the place, and were slowly sailing back upon Beyrout to wait for supplies, when a general order was received from the English admiralty, thanking the officers and seamen for their recent exertions. In an instant, all doubt about the ability to take Acre vanished, so far as the British were concerned; and an immediate assault was decided upon. At daylight on Monday, November 2, the whole fleet, English and Turkish, commanded by admirals Stopford and Walker Pacha (the latter the Turkish high-admiral), arrived before

the fortress, and shortly before sunset anchored. The night of the 2d was spent in sounding, and making preparations; and it was not until noon of the 3d that the commander-in-chief, sir Charles Felix Smith, gave the signal for attack, by firing from his steam-frigate, the *Phoenix*. At the same instant, the *Princess Charlotte* (the flag-ship) followed by the *Pow-erful*, *Thunderer*, *Bellerophon*, and *Pique*, made a little detour to the northward, so as to attack another frontage of the fortress. The fort had two faces towards the sea; the north face, against which the above ships were directed, and the south face, the attack of which was simultaneously undertaken by the *Castor*, *Carysfort*, *Talbot*, *Benbow*, *Edinburgh*, *Hazard*, and *Wasp*, assisted by the Turkish admiral, and two Austrian frigates. The *Castor*, with the other ships appointed to attack the south face, having opened their fire, it was received by the Egyptian garrison with the most gallant resistance; the broadsides of the fleet were answered by general discharges from the batteries, and the scene is described as truly awful. The attack on the northern face, by the *Charlotte*, &c., began at the same moment; and up to nearly half-past four, the batteries of both faces answered the broadsides. There was no appearance that the garrison was failing in its resolution to hold out the city, nor did it seem that our ships had made any serious impression on the walls. Such was the state of things, when, at 25 minutes past four, the action being then at its height, one of those incidents took place which baffle all forecast. One of the British shells fell into the principal magazine of the fortress, and was followed by a most terrific explosion. 'I can compare it to nothing,' says one of the eye-witnesses, 'but as if a huge fiery yew-tree had been suddenly conjured up from the devoted town: it hung for many minutes, a mighty pall, over those hundreds it had hurled into eternity, and its

smoke then slowly, owing to the lightness of the wind, drifted to the southward.' The principal magazine of the place had blown up; and it is supposed that 1700 Egyptian soldiers perished in the ruins, the wrecks of which covered the town, and flew in every direction over the sea. This event necessarily determined the fate of Acre; the fleet, of its own accord, struck with awe, nearly suspended its firing, and the admiral made the signal to discontinue the engagement. The fleet continued on its station till midnight; when a small Egyptian boat, with a flag of truce, was seen rowing up to the admiral's ship, and the messengers, upon being taken on board, reported that the Egyptians were leaving the town, and that free possession of it would be given to a landing party. In compliment to the Turks, 500 of them were landed, and marched into the place. A considerable sum of money, 3000 prisoners, vast quantities of ammunition, and all the guns of the fortress which had not been blown away, fell to the victors, who had only 23 killed, and 40 wounded. The work of destruction was not however yet completed; for on the 6th, three days after the former accident, a similar explosion took place, the cause of which could not of course be accurately ascertained. More than 100 poor Egyptian women were in the act of turning over the dead bodies of the soldiery, who fell by the first explosion, to discover their husbands and brothers, when a column, at least 500 yards in height, of thick yellow smoke and dust, with a loud and simultaneous report, occasioned by the bursting of more than a thousand shells, announced that another magazine had taken fire. Not only were all the women hurled into eternity, but 40 Turks and 15 English marines were killed; many officers, and amongst them sir Charles Felix Smith (whose horse was killed) wounded; and the magazine of the Princess Charlotte taking fire from the concussion, that

ship was with great difficulty saved. Oxen, asses, mules, camels, and horses, struck by the enormous stones which the shells scattered in all directions, fell a sacrifice and soon lay dead in heaps around the devoted fortress.

Mehemet Ali, on receiving the very unexpected intelligence of the fall of his most powerful bulwark, was for a moment paralysed, and, like his nation, urged by a feeling of revenge, appeared resolved to resist to the last. The arrival, however, of commodore Napier and a squadron off Alexandria, November 26, offering to him the hereditary pachalic of Egypt (little as the treacherous murderer of the Mamluks deserved such lenity, and which was but a sacrifice to French sentiment), if he would instantly relinquish all claim to Syria, and surrender the Turkish fleet to the sultan, induced him, after some hours' hesitation, and when he had been given to understand that Alexandria would be served like Acre should he delay his answer till another day, to listen to negotiation. With his usual exclamation, 'God is great!—we must submit'—he accepted the terms, and returned to his old grade of tributary pacha of the Porte for Egypt, but with an hereditary right to that pachalic, so long as no rebellion on his part should forfeit such right. Thus the Syrian war was at an end.

As to the amount of benefit expected to be derived by England from this restoration of a country to its rightful owners, that is perhaps small beyond the reversion of securing the peace of Europe. The rayahs, or Christian subjects of the Porte, would necessarily obtain as great privileges as are consistent with Osmanlee notions of propriety, out of respect to the conquerors; and an unfettered commerce with Beyrout, &c., would be looked for by the British. But the sultan's government has since shown itself defective in Syria; and instances of bloodshed among the tribes have been of daily

occurrence. In the autumn of 1841, in a contest in the Naupluse between the people there and the Bedwans, 1000 were slain; and in another between the Maronites and Druses, within 25 miles of Beyrout, 50 fell, before colonel Rose could interfere, and compel the parties to a peace. All Syrians, however, kept in a sort of slavery in Egypt, had been released, to the amount of 2600, by the beaten pacha; and some hope was entertained by the natives of Palestine, that they should be placed under permanent British protection, when they saw an authorized bishop of Jerusalem arrive from England, and settle among them, 1842. The Damascenes alone have shown themselves opposed to any English settlement in Palestine. They indeed endeavoured to unite Druses and Maronites, by encouraging their depredations among European settlers. Those mountain-tribes, however, on the sultan's removal of their new emir Bechir, an Austrian renegade, were soothed by receiving permission to share the high office between a native Druse and a native Maronite, in lieu of any Turkish governor whatever; and the same half-tamed races look forward with hope to the year 1270 of the Hijra, (we are now in the year 1258), when ancient prophecies announce that the Islam shall be abolished for ever.

THE WAR WITH CHINA, 1840.—Fifty years back, the Chinese government interdicted the importation of opium, under penalties which have yearly gone on increasing in severity. The British residents in India, however, who grow the drug in vast quantities at Malwa, Benares, and Behar (Patna), have persisted in smuggling it into China, rather than lose so lucrative a trade. At length in 1839 a royal edict was issued, announcing that loss of liberty and property should accrue to all foreigners in the factories of China, who should refuse to give up the opium in their hands to the Chinese government, to be destroyed; and captain

Elliot, the English superintendent, with various British merchants at Canton, were seized and thrown into prison, and declared responsible, even with their lives, for the unconditional surrender, not only of all the opium possessed by the English, but of that in the hands of other foreign traffickers in the drug—over whom they of course had no control. However, on captain Elliot's agreeing to the surrender of 20,000 chests then in the hands of the British, he and the merchants were set at liberty. The British traders affirm that the authorities of China have ever winked at the importation of opium, notwithstanding the prohibition, or the commerce therein could never have been established; but be that as it may, there can be but one opinion among thinking men concerning the matter. It is as much beneath the dignity of English merchants to encourage in a foreign people an intoxication of the most destructive kind, such as opium eating and smoking induce, as it would be to labour to promote gin-drinking in their own. To talk of the abolition of the slave-trade, and of the founding of temperance societies, while we heap up riches by encouraging slavery of mind, and drunkenness of body, is mockery indeed; and though the Chinese may be treacherous, and act unjustly in the mode of resenting injury done them, we have only to reflect that professing Christians, who are enjoined to regard their very enemies as brethren, and to refrain from leading them into sin, are the aggressors—while the aggrieved are the ignorant disciples of Buddha, who, like Mohammed, taught that all who are not his followers 'are but dogs, and may be treated as such.' As to whether the merchants concerned in such transactions are entitled to indemnity for the loss of their goods, there can be no doubt they are not. It is a just principle, both in politics and ethics, that no indemnity can be due to wrong-doers—because such indemnity would be a direct encourage-

ment to evil, and an invitation by act to do that which is prohibited by law. Indemnity is due for injury suffered, not for the consequences of injury done.

While the matter was still in debate, an incident occurred to embarrass a question already sufficiently grave. A Chinese of low grade had been killed, in a squabble with some English sailors, at Hong Kong; and this having induced Lin, the chief Chinese commissioner, to break off treating with captain Elliot, the latter sent the Volage and the Hyacinth to the Bogue, to deliver a chop demanding an explanation. The reply was an order to twenty-nine junks to surround and seize the two British ships. The junks were repeatedly warned off; but becoming troublesome, and approaching too close, the Volage and Hyacinth fired on them. Five were sunk or blown up, each with 200 men on board. The Chinese then retreated, and captain Elliot made the signal to retire. This and similar subsequent collisions bringing things to a crisis, sir James Gordon Bremer, commander of her majesty's ships of war on the India station, commenced a blockade of the port of Canton in June, 1840. In pursuance of the war, her majesty's ship Wellesley, with four other armed vessels, arrived before the strong fort of the city of Ting-hae-heen, in Tchusan, (an island on the east coast of China, between China and the Japan isles, and about the size of the isle of Wight,) midway (*i. e.* 500 miles) between Canton at the south, and Peking in the north; and sent a summons to the Chinese admiral to surrender the city and island without delay, August 3. As this was not complied with, the English troops landed with their artillery in the afternoon of the 5th; the city being then plainly seen to be walled in and about six miles round, the walls thickly lined with soldiery, a large collection of whom was also to be seen on the beach, arranged behind twenty-four guns of small calibre.

The English having fired, the guns in question returned the fire; instantly after which, the soldiery in command of them fled to the city. The assailants thereupon followed to the walls, from which single guns were every now and then discharged at them; but as night was coming on, it was deemed advisable to suspend further operations until morning. At daybreak, on approaching to force one of the gates with cannon, it was found that the city had been abandoned during the night. Quiet possession was therefore taken of the place by the British; and it was found that not a single man of the assailants had been hurt, from the beginning of the enterprise. The fortress of Ting-hae-heen is reported to be one of the strongest in China; its city is the capital of Tchusan; and that island, which is nearly opposite Nanking, is covered to the tops of the hills with the tea-tree. The governor of Tchusan, on being accused of cowardice by the people, drowned himself in a tank on the day the British entered Ting-hae-heen.

On August 22d a conflict took place at Macao between the English and Chinese troops, in consequence of the violation of the neutral territory by the latter in capturing Mr. Frederick Staunton, the English chaplain, while bathing. The fortified barrier of the Chinese was at length fired upon by the British ships, and taken; but Mr. Staunton, who had been sent off to Lin, the Chinese commissioner, and main conductor (as he was the proposer) of the war, was detained in prison from that period until December 10, when, from some fear on the part of Ke-shen, another commissioner, that the English arms would prevail, he was sent back to Macao. Nothing, however, in the way of indemnity for the destruction of the opium, and the costs of the expedition, was offered to the British by the Chinese, beyond five millions of dollars; and as the English flag was still constantly

insulted, an attack was made, January 7th, 1841, by the queen's and native Indian soldiery, supported by the Queen, Nemesis, and nine other vessels, on the Chinese forts of Chuenpee and Tykottow. There is nothing especially worth record in this affair, where both places fell, after an hour or two's conflict, to the assailants, if we except the conduct of the losing party—a conduct which has happily no parallel in that of European soldiers under similar circumstances. 'A sergeant of marines,' writes an English officer, who was in the fight, 'seeing a mandarin, called the Hiptae, being carried off' by his men severely wounded, approached the bearers, with the humane intention of offering aid to the chief; but that personage, on his approaching the litter, rose up, cut at him with his sword, and would have killed him, had not the sergeant, in pure self-defence, run his bayonet into him. A vast number of the Chinese leaped into the water, when pressed by the Cameronians and marines, and fired their matchlocks at their enemies, out of mere desperation: this, of course, precluded quarter, and the Spahis returned the fire with fatal effect. A mandarin, having lost both arms by cannon shot, grappled with an officer of the *Modeste*, and bit him severely above the elbow. In the conflict at Tykottow, the clothes, padded with cotton, of the killed and wounded defenders, got ignited by their ammunition-boxes and matches, which they carry in front; so that the ground presented heaps of burning bodies, many of them still struggling with death.' Captain Elliot was very generally blamed for not following up this success with an attack upon Annunghoy; and the consequence was a belief on the part of Lin, that the British were too weak for the enterprise. The result was the restoration of Chuenpee to the Chinese by the captain, on an agreement being signed to pay an indemnity of six millions of dollars in six years; and, by a new negotiation,

Tchusan was evacuated by the English, and the island of Hong Kong (certainly a healthier situation, Tchusan being the sink of dysentery to Europeans,) formally taken possession of in its stead, in the name of queen Victoria. The stockades at Tykottow were strongly built, and of capital materials; so capital, as to resist both shot and shell. The fact shows the advance the Chinese have made in the means of defence; and the style of work proves that no Europeans had given them aid in the construction. The undecided conduct of captain Elliot (who appeared far more disposed to contend for the integrity of the tea and opium trade, than for the honour and dignity of his country—insulted as he now saw his queen in his own person, as her representative, on every occasion of his holding communication with the Chinese authorities,) kept the British forces in a state of uncertainty, from the period of the fall of the forts until May; when it was clear that the plenipotentiary was being further cajoled. Up to the end of March, the Chinese had acted upon a convention concluded with the captain, so far as to continue the trade, and allow the vessels to lade with tea. But in the meantime the governor of Canton continued his preparations for war, built new forts, and assembled troops in large numbers. The military and naval commanders, however, were obliged to make captain Elliot see all this; and when his attention was thus aroused, he demanded an interview with the mandarin governor, May 10. That personage easily persuaded the plenipotentiary that nothing hostile was intended; nor was it until the 17th, (the rapid increase of the Chinese force about Canton continuing,) that the latter gave orders to the naval and military commanders to weigh their anchors, and move up the river. On the 20th the whole force was in front of Canton; and on the 21st a British proclamation was issued, desiring all foreigners to retire from the factories before sunset.

At eleven that night the Chinese began the attack, by firing on all the English vessels within reach of the forts, and letting loose their fire-ships. But the British men-of-war were on the alert; and the steamer *Nemesis* soon towed off the enemy's vessels. The fight began during the night between the English ships and the fort of Shaming, which fell in the morning, and eight new brass guns were found in it. During the engagement above 100 war-junks came out of a creek, but were instantly driven back by the 32-pounder of the *Nemesis*; the sailors of which vessel were occupied three hours in setting fire to 40 of them. Having completed the work, the steamer emerged from the creek, decorated with the flags and pendants of the destroyed junks. On the 23d of May, the squadron and troops of the British arrived, and the leaders, Elliot, Senhouse, and Gough, after holding a conference, sent the *Sulphur* to find a place for landing; and though this reconnoissance was furiously attacked, it beat off its assailants manfully, and burned 28 of their boats. An excellent spot being discovered, the steamers, on the next day, began towing to their destination; and on the morning of the 25th, the whole land force was on shore, and drawn up in the immediate suburb of Canton, under the chief command of major-general Gough; major Pratt, with the right column, guarding the factorics to the south of the city. 'At half-past nine (writes the general), the advance was sounded; and it has seldom fallen to my lot to witness a more soldierlike or steadier advance, or a more animated attack. Every individual, native as well as European, gallantly performed his duty. The result was that the two forts were speedily captured with comparatively small loss; and that, in little more than half an hour after the order to advance was given, we looked down on Canton, within 100 paces of its walls.' Whilst this was going on, a very large force, full

40,000 in number, being the Chinese army under the emperor's brother, had collected on a rising ground above the city; and general Gough perceived that they were in a state of preparation for attack. He, therefore, anticipated this movement by an instant charge of his own force, drove in the enemy at all points and forced them to fly, burned their whole encampment, blew up their magazines, and then marched quietly back to his former station before the walls. 'I made an immediate recognisance of the walls and gates (continues the general), and decided on taking the city by assault next morning, or rather upon taking a strong fortified height of considerable extent within the city walls, which was now the only remaining strong-work in possession of the Chinese general. While preparing, however, for this, I received a message from the mandarin governor, that he wished for peace.' The general of course referred him to the superintendent, and shortly after received a countermand from captain Elliot, stating that he had consented to spare the city from an assault, and to withdraw the British force, upon the conditions—first, of all the Chinese troops marching 60 miles from Canton; second, six millions of dollars to be paid to the English crown within a week; and third, the British soldiers to remain where they were, until the terms of the convention had been assented to. The general was compelled thereupon to desist; and, after three days' delay, the whole of the conditions being complied with, the British troops, which, in the interval, had had several smart skirmishes with the impudent Tartars, were withdrawn—the Chinese furnishing every means to get rid of them and their guns. The heat at this juncture was excessive; one officer, major Becher, fell dead from a coup-de-soleil; several thunder-storms occurred; and sickness was apprehended, from the rice-fields around the forts, a common cause of Euro-

pean illness. Great indeed was the vexation of both commanders and men at losing a powerful means, completely within their grasp, of bringing the enemy to reason; and so much did the circumstance work on the mind of sir Humphry Le Fleming Senhouse, that he died on board the *Blenheim* of fever, June 14th.

Captain Elliot was soon after superseded by the arrival of sir Henry Pottinger as plenipotentiary from queen Victoria, with instructions to negotiate no farther for money, but to continue, or close the war, as found necessary, with nothing in view but the establishment of just relations between the two countries. Permission was to be demanded for an English minister to reside permanently at Peking, and to hold direct communication with the emperor; and there was to be a proper indemnity for the expenses of a war so wantonly protracted by cunning underlings on the one side, and by a narrow-viewing superintendent on the other. Still peace, not money, was to be the object of the war, if war must still continue. The effects of so spirited a change were soon visible; and while the British, as if inspired with new energies, put their fleet and army into the most active and menacing positions, the timidity, not to say natural cowardice, of the Chinese, returned upon them with tenfold power, and caused them everywhere to yield to the earliest demonstration of attack. The affair of Amoy was the first noted instance, after the change of councils, of this increased fear on the enemy's part. The English squadron, thirty-four sail, reached the city and fort of Amoy, on the mainland, and near the isle Formosa, August 25th, and on the following morning got possession of the whole, destroying 500 pieces of brass and iron cannon found therein, and without losing a man. The loss of the enemy, too, owing to the humanity of the conquerors, was very inconsiderable. The cannonade lasted two hours, but as it made no im-

pression whatever upon the walls of the fort, which were composed of hewn granite, and covered with an outward plastering of clay, the assailants resorted to escalade; and the Chinese, though in perfect security behind their walls, took to flight on seeing the English climbing up them at every point. The mandarin in command of the place, instantly rushed headlong into the sea, and drowned himself in despair; and another mandarin was seen to cut his throat and fall dead before our men could reach him. The viceroy of the province of Fo-kien, wherein Amoy is situate, had taken his station upon a hill outside the town; and no sooner did he perceive the landing of the troops, than he and the officers of his suite started off like frightened deer, and were soon out of sight. Amoy is one of the best harbours in China, and has always been a large emporium of Chinese commerce. Just at the period of its capture, captain Nias, regarding the repair of the forts of Canton a breach of treaty, destroyed that of Wang-tong; and to prove that the emperor is but a cipher in his provinces, notwithstanding his high titles of 'celestial emperor, and brother of the sun and moon,' the tea-trade with the English, in spite of his most furious decrees, was going on all the while at Canton. A squadron also, for the same bad faith, sailed for Tchusan, attacked it, and in a short time took possession of it again, in the name of queen Victoria, October 1st; this was followed by rear-admiral Parker's capture of Chinghae, a strongly-fortified place at the mouth of the Ningpo river, on the 10th; and the small garrison of Ningpo, a rich and beautiful city fifteen miles up the river, on hearing of the fall of Chinghae, deserted their posts, and the place was entered by the British on the 13th.

The first operations in 1842 (the plenipotentiary still waiting for supplies from England) were against the garrisoned cities of Yuyao, Tsikee,

and Funghwa, situate forty, twenty, and thirty miles respectively from Ningpo. The Tartar soldiery fled from the walls of each of those places as soon as they had been attacked, in January; the British entered, gave up the government granaries of rice to the inhabitants, manned the deserted works as well as they could, and then retired to Ningpo. Sir Henry then gave orders to be ready for the march upon Peking, so soon as the new troops should have joined them; and when commissioners arrived to treat of peace, he told them frankly he should henceforth treat only with the emperor in person—and that at Peking. The district of Peking appears really all of China that is actually under the sway of his celestial majesty; a fact which has long been surmised. While waiting for supplies, sir Henry was attacked in Ningpo on the 10th of March. A considerable body of Chinese soldiers had been secretly introduced into the town in disguise by the inhabitants; and these having, in the night, let in a considerable force, the market-place was in their possession before the British were aware of any movement. The garrison, however, assembled with incredible activity, and succeeded in almost instantly expelling the intruders, killing above 600 of them, at the expense of only three English wounded. The flying enemy was pursued with all celerity; but as they were better acquainted with the nature of the ground beyond Ningpo than the British troops, the whole country being intersected, like a labyrinth, by canals, over which hundreds of bridges, consisting of only loose boards, usually lay, but were now pulled away by the fugitives, that example which the English hoped to make of them could not be effected. A second Chinese army, 6000 strong, having advanced; on March 12th, to within ten miles of Ningpo, and about a mile from the populous city of Tse-kee, sir Henry thought it right to attack their for-

tified position. Sir Hugh Gough and rear-admiral Parker were deputed to the command; and the latter conveyed sir Hugh, and about 1260 soldiers and marines, up the river, on the 13th. Before reaching the port of debarkation, they had the gratification of seeing, at a village four miles from Tse-kee, a large force of the Chinese encamped on the hills to the north of the city. The combined forces were all landed, and in full march for Tse-kee at 2 p. m.; and about four, the walls of it were escalated by the seamen and marines and a party of sappers, with no other resistance than that offered by a body of matchlock men, and others commanding a few gingals. Advancing along the deserted ramparts, a detachment of the 18th rejoined the general and main body, and all proceeded outside the wall to the north-eastern angle of the city; from which they had an excellent view of the enemy's forces, consisting of about 6000 men, strongly posted in fortified encampments, on the two lofty hills of Segaon, in front and on the left. It having been decided that the assault of the latter should be assigned to the naval brigade, and that in front to the 49th regiment, captains Bourchier and Richards sprang to the head of the brigade, and aimed the most galling fire, crossed an intervening paddy-field, and began mounting their hill, which was disputed from its base to its crest; and several instances of obstinate personal encounter with mandarins occurred. The ascent was steep and difficult, but steadily and gallantly persevered in under an unceasing fire, until the summit was attained; whereupon the Chinese fled in every direction. Commander Watson of the *Modeste*, who had been stationed in the rear of the storming party, succeeded, by great efforts, in reaching a forward position, with some of his men, before the hill was carried; and the main body of seamen and marines, as they advanced in support, perceiving its fate, pressed round the sides, and inflicted a severe

loss on the flying Chinese, the pursuit of whom continued until sunset. During these operations, the other hill was simultaneously carried by general sir Hugh Gough and his brave troops, in admirable style; and the rout of the enemy at every point was thus complete. No less than 1000 Chinese were slain on the field and in the pursuit, including thirteen mandarins; while the British loss was only three killed, and thirty-two wounded. A similar encampment was sought by the English on the following day seven miles north of Tse-kee; but the fortifications were found abandoned, with all the arms and a vast quantity of rice and other stores. After destroying every thing there and at Tse-kee likely to aid the enemy, the whole force re-embarked on the 17th, and returned to Ning-po. There the news had arrived of the emperor of China's flight from Peking into Tartary; his celestial majesty having previously commanded 'his dear children of Pe-king to fight to the last in defence of their great city,' an injunction vehemently seconded by the bonzes, or priests of Buddha.

On May 8th, on account of information received at Tchusan that a large Chinese army was at Chapoo, the British ships *Phlegethon* and *Nemesis*, with troops under sir Hugh Gough, and several other vessels (the admiral being sir W. Parker), moved from Tchusan, and on the 16th got near enough to Chapoo to reconnoitre. The line of land from east to west, for a space of three miles, and ending at the suburb of the city, comprised three separate hills; the slopes between were fortified by field-works; and on the last of the hills, next the town, were two batteries, about one-third of the way up it, and well mounted with guns. In front of the town, facing the water, was a circular battery of fifteen, and further to the westward another of forty-five guns, on the sea face. The hills and works were literally crammed with soldiery. On the 17th the British

ships moved in, and on the 18th, the *Cornwallis*, *Blonde*, and *Modeste*, being anchored abreast, and as close to the batteries as possible, opened their fire. This was, most unaccountably, only faintly returned; and the English troops began disembarking on a fine sandy bay to the eastward. On seeing his men all safe on shore, sir Hugh gallantly led them, sword-in-hand, straight over the heights, and soon came upon a causeway leading to the city. Here the Chinese, though thickly crowded, fled before the assailants in every direction; and the naval brigade, as soon as possible after the move made by the troops from the east, landed at the west end of the heights, and joined them between the heights and the suburbs. Every defence had been carried up to this time without the slightest loss to the English; but about 300 Tartar soldiers, on finding escape impossible, and being inspired with the belief that their enemies would give no quarter, took possession of a joss-house on the spot, and began defending themselves with desperation. It was not until the house was actually battered down upon their heads that forty of them were taken prisoners, the other 260 having perished to a man; and the British had to lament the loss of colonel Tomlinson, of the Royal Irish, on the occasion, and eight men of the line, with about fifty men and officers wounded. The Chinese had in all 11,000 men on the field, one-third of them Tartars; and though their loss in killed was great, it was comparatively small, through their early and rapid flight. Chapoo is the chief seat of the Japan trade; and immense quantities of arms and stores were found therein.

After the necessary delay in destroying the batteries, magazines, foundries, barracks, and other public buildings, as well as the ordnance, arms, and ammunition, the troops were re-embarked, May 23rd, and the expedition arrived on the 29th off the Rugged Islands, where it re-

mained until June 18th; on which day it crossed the bar into the Yang-tze-kiang river, to the point where the Woo-sung unites with it, with a view to attack the city of Shang-hai. At this point the Chinese had erected immense lines of works, and seemed so confident of their ability to repel the English, that they not only calmly allowed the boats of the latter to lay down buoys in the night of the 14th, to guide the ships of war to their allotted positions of attack, but even cheered, as if encouraging, the crews. The squadron had scarcely taken their respective stations, at daylight on the 16th, when the batteries opened, and the cannonading was exceedingly heavy on both sides for about two hours; but that of the Chinese began then to slacken, and the British seamen and marines were landed at once under the fire from the ships, and actually drove the Chinese from their posts, before the troops could be disembarked, much less be formed for advancing. The 17th and 18th were occupied in silencing several other forts up the river; and every position being at length carried, the British entered triumphantly into Shang-hai on the 19th, destroyed at once every public building, and delivered over the vast granaries of the government to the Chinese populace. The high officers of the city had fled in the direction of Nanking; and, with the casualties of only two killed, another large town, and no less than 364 heavy guns, seventy-six of them of brass, and newly cast, were thus in the possession of the English.

When the troops first entered Shang-hai, scarcely a soul was to be seen. Thousands of private persons had left the city with the functionaries; but many families remained shut up in their houses. When, however, they found that the troops were peaceable and quiet, they gradually showed themselves, and the rabble speedily commenced a system of plunder. Goods from the deserted houses were henceforth carried out of the city day and night,

most of them by any rather than the owners. The English commandant was requested to prevent this, by giving directions that nothing should be allowed to pass the gates. Orders to this effect were at first refused, on the plea that the inhabitants ought to come and look after their own affairs; and thus these disregards of *meum* and *tuum* were allowed to carry on a most prosperous game of spoliation, every thing rapidly disappearing before their light fingers. No shops were open; and had this continued, the city would soon have been empty: orders were therefore at length given to stop the robbers at the gates, and not to allow them to climb over the walls. The remedy now became worse than the disease: honest men were stopped with the thieves, for who was to distinguish between them? Goods out of number accumulated at the guard-house, and the office of the officer appointed to check the system of robbery, was besieged by claimants to recover their property; who, on getting an order for it, helped themselves most liberally, taking very good care to make up for all previous losses; and rarely if ever did the true owner become possessed of what was justly his. Coffins, notwithstanding the order, were allowed to pass, until the notice of the sentries was attracted by the quantities of dead bodies carried out of the town. When their curiosity at length had prompted them to examine one of these depositories, it proved to be full of rolls of silk, crape, and other valuables! The coffin-artifice failing, other methods were resorted to by the ever-prolific minds of the Chinese thieves. Several even met their death from the sentries, while trying to force their way by them; one aged rogue, overlaid with plunder, sank in the canal; and many received the penalty of their crimes from the people whom they were attempting to rob. One fellow in particular was found tied to a post in the market-place, so tightly bound, that the blood oozed out from

his hands and arms, while his eyes were starting from their sockets. Another was brought to the magistrate's office, who had been thus treated by his captor—a literary graduate; and it was two hours before the scoundrel recovered the use of his speech. His learned persecutor seemed much astonished, and could not at all understand why he should be accused of cruelty in thus giving a thief his due, as the moral law of the Chinese allows; having, as he stated, merely executed an act of justice, the non-observance of which on his own part would subject him to the severest censure of the bonzes.

Various American and French ships, out of mere curiosity, now joined the British squadron; though it was alleged, by parties ever anxious to promote dissension, that the object of the intruders was impudently to demand all the advantages which the British were obtaining by a fearful expenditure of money, if not of blood. And here it is worthy of remark, that the English plan of war being based on a desire to convince the Chinese that their dispute was with the government, and not with the people, the defences only of the Chinese towns were destroyed, while the houses, the temples, and all but such public edifices as might be fortified against the invaders, were studiously left uninjured; the inhabitants being at the same time everywhere encouraged to return and occupy their private possessions. The only danger of such a course to the British might arise from the interpretation put upon it by the Chinese authorities; and their avoidance of pitched battles, and their ready relinquishment of town after town, ought always to be regarded with suspicion. The English force was necessarily becoming much divided by the system; and when an unhealthy climate, strange food, and certain privations, came to exert their influence, the position of the soldiery might be alarming.

After the capture of Shang-hai the

expedition was detained by bad weather and other circumstances at Woosung until the 6th of July; on which day it advanced up the Yang-tze-kiang, and on the 14th reached a Chinese military position, built on a range of hills commanding the stream. Two batteries, recently erected at this point, began opening their fire upon the British ships; and they were not only speedily silenced, but taken and destroyed. The fleet was detained at this spot for nearly a week by adverse winds, though some of the ships of war during that interval pushed on, by means of towing-steamers, to Kishan, or 'golden island,' where the whole armament, amounting to seventy sail, at length assembled on the 20th of July, and anchored abreast of the city of Chin-kiang-foo. A reconnoissance having been obtained during the same evening, the troops were disembarked as early as possible on the ensuing morning; and as it was believed a force of 3000 Chinese were at the moment in a camp (which was visible from hills overhanging the river) at about three miles' distance, the right brigade of the English force was ordered to move upon it under general lord Saltoun, supported by general Bartley with the centre brigade—the latter to cut off the anticipated retreat of fugitives from the camp to the city. The left brigade, under general Schoedde, landed on the river-face of the city, opposite to the fleet, where it was instructed to escalate the northern wall. The Chinese troops did not venture to stand the approach of their enemies; but, after firing three or four distant volleys from their jingalls and matchlocks, whereby they fruitlessly wasted ammunition, they broke and dispersed over the country, disappearing in the everywhere abounding jungle. The Tartar garrison, however, began a heavy and incessant fire upon the left brigade, with every species of Chinese ordnance; notwithstanding which, the British most gallantly escalated the lofty wall to the ram-

parts, every inch of which the Tartars disputed, availing themselves, with great tact, of their knowledge of the localities, to gall their assailants, and screen their own men. The centre brigade, meanwhile, got into the city by blowing open one of the gates; but even after the left had received this important reinforcement, besides parties of seamen and marines, who had been landed on the instant that the opposition promised to be stubborn, the garrison prolonged the contest with great bravery for several hours. It was approaching to evening, when the Tartar warriors suddenly disappeared to a man; and, as has been found the practice of these hired troops, they doubtless threw away their arms and military habit for that of townsmen, and mingled with the people of the city. Ching-kiang-foo, four miles in circumference, with defensive works in fine repair (the parapet being so thick and solid, that nothing but cannon shot could have made any impression on it, besides that it was flanked everywhere with transverse walls), thereupon fell to the British; and the garrison of full 3000 had lost forty mandarins (officers) and above 1000 inferior men. The Tartar commander-in-chief, on finding all was lost, retired to his house in the city, made his servants set it on fire, and seating himself in a chair, remained until he was burned to death. His private secretary was found, on the day following the assault, concealed in a garden; and that functionary, on being carried to the ruins of the commander's mansion, recognised the half-consumed body of his master, whom he justly eulogized as (according to eastern notions) one of the most valiant of men. Colonel Driver, captain Collinson, and lieutenant Gibbons, of the army, and major Uniacke, of the marines, were killed, on the part of the English, and numerous other officers were wounded; and the expedition, after leaving a competent garrison in the captured city, soon moved up the majestic

Yang-tze-kiang, headed by the admiral's flag-ship, Cornwallis, and anchored off Nanking, forty miles above Ching-kiang-foo.

That ancient Chinese capital, as large as London, and containing more than a million of inhabitants, is situated three miles from the river, but is connected therewith by numerous fine canals; the land approach to its lofty walls and four gates being along broad causeways raised above the marshes and rice-grounds, amidst which the city is situated. The British squadron lost no time in preparations for bombarding it. A large division of the army, under lord Saltoun, landed to the west of the city, August 12th, and took up a position on a hill half a mile distant from the walls; and this movement had no sooner been made, than it became generally rumoured that the citizens had resolved not to provoke the destruction of their property by resistance. The truth of this statement was soon discovered by the silence of the guns of the garrison, whose force amounted to about 14,000 Chinese and Tartars, while that of the assailants, military and naval, was under 4000; and in an hour after lord Saltoun's advance, a flag of truce arrived at the ship of the British plenipotentiary, sir Henry Pottinger, praying for a cessation of hostilities. The assault on Nanking, therefore, which had been designed for the 13th, was postponed; and on the 15th, three high imperial commissioners arrived from 'his celestial majesty,' Yee-king (one of the royal house), Elipo, and Gnu, to offer terms of peace. They speedily communicated to the plenipotentiary the powers with which they were invested; visits of ceremony accordingly took place; and, after various conferences, the conditions of a treaty of amity were signed, in the presence of the admiral and general, and of many other British officers. Copies of those conditions were immediately transmitted to Peking, to which capital the emperor had returned from

his flight; and on the 26th of August (1842), the war with China was solemnly closed by the last signature of the treaty being placed thereto, on board the steam-frigate *Queen*, in the Yang-tze-kiang river, off Nanking, by general sir Henry Pottinger, the British plenipotentiary. The terms are briefly these: 1, China to pay 21,000,000 dollars (six millions sterling), as the expenses of the war; 2, the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ningpo, and Shang-hai, to be thrown open to British merchants, and to have resident English consuls; 3, the island of Hong-Kong to be ceded in perpetuity to Great Britain; 4, all English prisoners to be released; 5, an amnesty to be granted to all Chinese subjects whom the British may have compelled to serve under them; 6, correspondence to be conducted on terms of perfect equality among the officers of both governments (thus abolishing the Chinese rude practice of styling all foreigners, and treating them as barbarians). It is probable, beyond these articles, that stipulations have been made for the continual residence of a minister at Peking, to protect British persons and interests.

All true lovers of their country, Englishmen of course we mean, were gratified to receive intelligence that a war, begun without the usual show of justice on the part of Great Britain, was thus brought to a close. Peace itself, not the results and conditions of peace, pleased such men; who, feeling the gains were ill-gotten, and likely to share the fate of similar acquisitions, felt relieved from the expectation of hearing by each successive India mail, that our gallant soldiers had been afresh engaged in putting to death, rather than defeating, an unskilful, helpless rabble. No longer would they be sickened by seeing the brethren and successors in arms of those who stemmed the tide of battle at Albuera or Waterloo, sweeping away with cannon or bayonet, crowds of a soldiery less gifted with courage than European women;

and no more would they be obliged to read, that after a day of slaughter, a corporal and half a dozen privates composed the total loss on the British side. God forbid we should be thought to wish the death of our countrymen; yet it must be confessed that the very disparity of effective power which existed between the two national forces—the very security with which our cool and practised soldiery were able to direct their means of destruction upon our enemies—the very consciousness of might—fatal, confident, irresistible might—could not but give poignancy to the feeling, that this tremendous machinery was being made an engine of evil—was enforcing wrong upon a monstrously ill-treated nation. The only source of pleasure in reflecting on what has been done, is found in the recollection that the British assailants constantly remembered mercy; that they allowed no rapine, nothing of that licence usual to soldiers when the towns of an enemy fall to them; that, in this respect, they warred like Christian men; and that such conduct (originating as it did, in a conscious feeling that the injustice was, at the opening of the contest, all on the assailants' side), may be the means, under God's providence, ever ready to bring good out of evil, of arresting the attention of the heathen Chinese to a disinterestedness and moderation which they will recognize as among the fruits of a purer faith than their own.

As respects the offensive effect of the British conquest of China upon the minds of the Chinese people and government, we may sit down satisfied that, from habit, they will soon forget all concerning the affair. They are in fact a nation of babies in comparison to Europeans; and after a few fits of passion about what has been done (in which they may, perhaps, do us a little intentional mischief), they will quietly conform to the terms allowed them. They indeed evinced a spirit of revenge be-

fore the pacification was effectually arranged, though the emperor himself had signed the treaty ; for, in the month of December, scarcely four months after the suspension of hostilities, a formidable riot broke out in the neighbourhood of Canton, which soon extended itself to the foreign factories. The immediate cause was the irregular conduct of the crews of some English vessels, who had been allowed to go ashore in numbers without any officer to control them. The mob had been previously excited by certain anti-British partisans ; and, soon quitting the sailors, whose blows they could ill parry, they rushed to the flagstaff of the English factory, and after destroying the flag, broke into and plundered the buildings, and then burned them to the ground. Happily the steamer *Proserpine*, having on board sir Hugh Gough, arrived at the juncture at Canton, and the rioting ceased. Sir Henry Pottinger had just previously discovered that more than a hundred British subjects, who had been wrecked in the ship *Nerbudda* and the brig *Ann*, in September, 1841, and March, 1842, on the coast of Formosa, had, on the instant of their landing, been put to death by the Chinese authorities of the island, and, as those functionaries alleged, by command of the emperor. The Canton riot having been mainly caused by the carelessness of English ships' officers, it could not, in justice, be made a charge against the Chinese government, sore as the nation was at the time, through its recent beating ; but the plenipotentiary very properly issued a proclamation concerning the atrocious treatment of the wrecked mariners, wherein he demanded that the local authorities, who had led to the commission of the enormity, should be degraded and condignly punished, and that, their property being confiscated, the proceeds should be given over to the officers of the British government, for the relief and support of the families of those who had been thus mercilessly put to death. A

threat of a renewal of hostilities was held out, in case the demand should not be acceded to ; but it was well known that the emperor would not dare refuse compliance.

Since every thing relative to a state so little known to us as the most ancient one of CATHAY (see vol. i. 5) is highly interesting, we will conclude with a few extracts from the published and unpublished materials towards a History of China, with which some of the officers of the recent expedition have furnished us. The following is part of a letter from a young officer of lord Saltoun's division, and, though written with that flippancy in which young men too much indulge, it affords, we are assured, an accurate picture. 'The regiment has been on board some time ; but I was left on shore with lord Saltoun. I have seen wonderful sights. One day we made a party, and rode to a large joss-house, said to have belonged to Confucius. (This is a joke of the young officer.) At the entrance, on each side, instead of an avenue of trees, were huge elephants and wild beasts, roughly hewn out of blocks of marble, and some of them beautiful, but of immense height and size. They are supposed to be there as guardians of the road. We advanced to three bridges, alongside of each other, built of marble ; and passing them, we came to three long flights of steps, at the top of which were three large doors, within which we saw an enormous tortoise supporting a very handsome tomb. There is nothing wonderful in the temple itself, the length of which we found to be seventy-five paces, by thirty-five broad. Behind, on the hill, is a large garden ; but we did not examine it, the sun being a trifle too hot. We were present at a great meeting between the plenipotentiary and the mandarins. We had to go in full uniform, which we found rather warm. A joss-house had been fitted up for the occasion with banners and cloth ; but I did not admire the taste of them. We entered through a large square

court, in each corner of which was a Chinese band of music, consisting of six performers in each: the noise they made was dreadful, beating small gongs, and blowing a great thing like our coach-horns. We then passed through files of Tartar soldiers, looking very sulky at us, having their banners tied to their backs, and swearing never to desert them. We made them sing another song at Ching-Kiang-foo. In the next apartment we were assailed by the same kind of music. The officers in full dress, and the mandarins in their superb silk dresses, with red, blue, and white buttons, was rather an imposing sight. The plenipotentiary was seated, taking tea, and talking, through the interpreter, with the mandarins in attendance. I was scarcely within this apartment, when a mandarin took me by the arm, and led me into another room; and having brought in a chair, he proceeded to pull up a large curtain, and then introduced me into a room, where all our fellows were hard at work with tea and sweetmeats. I took my place, and, being very thirsty, found the green tea delicious. There was nothing on the table but sweetmeats and preserved fruits, and sponge-cakes—all excellent. On coming out, I was greatly annoyed by the curiosity of the people leading them to paw my wings and lace; but I was relieved by the striking up of the band of the 18th, when all ran off to hear it. They seemed especially charmed with the big drum. Our next trip was to the celebrated porcelain tower of Nanking. We went up a creek, in a Chinese boat, and first got sight of it within a few hundred yards. It is really very beautiful. Its height is about 160 feet, and it is divided into nine stories. The colours of the porcelain are green, yellow, and red. Up we got to the top, and drank the queen's health with abundance of honours. We had a fine view of the town, which, unless from some elevation, cannot be seen, on account of

the height of the walls, which in some places is fifty feet.

The following is from captain Bingham. 'All the women I saw about Tchusan had small feet. High and low, rich and poor, all more or less follow the custom; and when you see a large or natural-sized foot, you may depend upon it the possessor is not of true Chinese blood, but is either of Tartar extraction, or belongs to the tribes that live and have their being on the waters. The Tartar ladies, however, are falling into this Chinese habit of distortion, as the accompanying edict of the emperor proves. For know, good people, you must not dress as you like in China: you must follow the habits and customs of your ancestors, and wear your winter and summer clothing as the emperor, or one of the six boards, shall direct. Tartar ancestors did not compress their feet, neither must their Tartar descendants. Let us now see what the emperor says about little feet, on finding that they were coming into vogue among the undeformed daughters of the Mantchows. Not only does he attack the little feet, but the large Chinese sleeves which were creeping into fashion at court. Therefore, to check these misdemeanours, the usual Chinese remedy was resorted to, and a flaming edict launched denouncing them; threatening the 'heads of the families with degradation and punishment,' if they did not put a stop to such gross illegalities; and his celestial majesty further goes on, and tells the fair ones 'that by persisting in their vulgar habits, they will debar themselves from the possibility of being selected as ladies of honour for the inner palace, at the approaching presentation.'

The following notes are from lord Jocelyn's 'Six Months with the Chinese Expedition.' 'The squadron now sailed in different directions along the Tartar and Pechelée coasts, whilst we ran over in the Volage to Manchoo Tartary. This country is tributary to both China and Japan,

but appears more dependant on the latter; the men are remarkably athletic, tall, and jealous of their women, and the country not unlike parts of the western coast of Scotland. They seemed to live chiefly on vegetables, varied at times by puppy's flesh: in many of the houses we found these little creatures fattening for their fate; for although they have plenty of bullocks, they employ them only for agricultural purposes; and all through China and along this coast, milk, the principal article of diet among European peasantry, is not used. We remarked that the Chinese at Tchusan laughed immoderately at our soldiers milking the goats; as they think it unnatural that men should drink the milk of animals. However, the Tartars to the westward are said by travellers to live entirely on the milk obtained from the camel; so this must be a peculiarity of the people of Manchoo, derived from the Chinese. We found the most useful articles of barter here were the brass buttons on a naval jacket, the worth of one being estimated far higher than a Spanish dollar, of which they did not seem at first to comprehend the value; for a button, kindly furnished me from the jacket of a friend, I became the owner of a sheep and some poultry, and I suspect both purchaser and seller were equally proud of their ability at barter.' 'On the following day some mandarins came off to the ship, and breakfasted with the admiral. It was surprising to see the enormous quantity of food they devoured; and one, who was of an immense size, weighing upwards of thirty stone, upon being questioned as to his powers of consumption, acknowledged, with a degree of vanity, that a sheep was his ordinary allowance for three days; nor did he seem at all satisfied with his morning meal. The Chinese, like the natives of India, esteem size and bulk; as they imagine such an exterior a sign of wealth and power, and respect it accordingly! The

Chinese have a saying in their language, 'a mob of people is more dangerous than a troop of wild beasts;' and their manner of treating these popular demonstrations is worthy of attention—the police have strict orders never to interfere, as they conceive that difficulties are more likely to arise from meddling with, than benefits to accrue from suppressing them by force. There was an extraordinary instance of this at Canton only a few years since, when the opposition to the opium-trade first broke out. The people refused to admit the soldiers to search their houses, and, forming themselves into parties or trades, barricaded the streets. The government immediately gave in, and the military made no further attempts at the time. It is not above twenty years since the emperor himself was attacked in the palace at Peking by a band of ruffians, who entered the precincts, forcing him to head his guards for protection. This shows that the power of this empire is on no firmer base than that of other Eastern nations, and is liable to be disturbed at any time by the people, when they may have acquired a knowledge of their strength.' His lordship mentions the beauty of the country about Singapore. 'The winds were light and variable until the 21st, when we made the land, and entered the straits of Singapore, running along by the coast of Malacca. The richness of the scene extends even to the water's edge, where the bright trees of all descriptions dip their branches in the waves, and the sweet and spicy odours render fragrant the air from the neighbouring shore; whilst, in the background, runs a line of broken mountains, of which Mount Ophir is the highest in the range. Mount Ophir, from its name and gold-mines, gives a degree of interest to the traveller. In shape it resembles Mount Vesuvius, and for many miles at its base stretches a tract of forest, inhabited by wild beasts, and by men even more savage

than the animals themselves. The mines have been worked at a distant period upon a much larger scale than at present; the only people who now follow the trade being a few Chinese and Portuguese, upon whom the chiefs of the tribes levy a species of black mail, in return for the protection they afford. At the outskirts of the town of Singapore, they have built a joss-house, or temple, which, at the time of our first arrival, was scarcely finished. Some of the carving of the woodwork in and around the building is beautiful, and cut with great taste and care; but the huge and ungainly figures of devils and dragons, which stand in threatening attitudes around the altars, give a grotesque appearance to a place of worship, that is found in no other religion but that of the Buddhists. Placed between a blue and red devil, standing upwards of six feet high each, sits the figure of the queen of heaven—a gilded image, richly dressed in embroidered China silks: this seemed to be the great object of their adoration; whilst, on a high carved altar in front, were sticks of incense, burning in little pots filled with earth. The exterior of the building was tiled with green and blue porcelain, and the edges of the roofs were ornamented with carving in the shapes of animals, monsters, and flowers; each gable-end, curling upwards, was deeply cut, like the cornice-work upon a Grecian pillar; and the whole, from the varied and gaudy colouring, and the high polish, had a novel and pleasing effect to the eye. Since I have seen many of the temples and houses of the Chinese, the paintings on the old china imported into England struck me as the best delineations of the buildings and figures of these extraordinary people; and it is wonderful how correct they are in the main features. His lordship's notice of the Chinese opium-eaters serves to illustrate our opening observation. 'One of the objects at this place, that I had the curiosity to visit, was the

opium-smoker in his heaven; and certainly it is a most fearful sight, although perhaps not so degrading to the eye as the drunkard from spirits—lowered to the level of the brute, and wallowing in his filth. The idiot-smile and death-like stupor, however, of the opium debauchee, has something far more awful to the gaze than the bestiality of the latter. The rooms where they sit and smoke are surrounded by wooden couches, with places for the head to rest upon, and generally a side-room is devoted to gambling. The pipe is a reed of about an inch in diameter, and the aperture in the bowl for the admission of the opium is not larger than a pin's head. The drug is prepared with some kind of conserve, and a very small portion is sufficient to charge it, one or two whiffs being the utmost that can be inhaled from a single pipe; and the smoke is taken into the lungs as from the hookah in India. On a beginner, one or two pipes will have an effect; but an old stager will continue smoking for hours. At the head of each couch is placed a small lamp, as fire must be held to the drug during the process of inhaling; and, from the difficulty of filling and properly lighting the pipe, there is generally a person who waits upon the smoker to perform the office. A few days of this luxury, when taken to excess, will give a pallid and haggard look to the face; and a few months, or even weeks, will change the strong and healthy man into little better than an idiot skeleton. The pain they suffer when deprived of the drug after long habit, no language can express; and it is only when to a certain degree under its influence, that their faculties are alive. In the houses devoted to their ruin, these infatuated people may be seen at nine o'clock in the evening, in all the different stages. Some entering, half distracted, to feed the craving appetite they had been obliged to subdue during the day; others laughing and talking wildly

under the effects of a first pipe ; whilst the couches around are filled with their different occupants, who lie languid, with an idiot smile upon their countenance, too much under the influence of the drug to care for passing events, and fast merging to the wished-for consummation. The last scene in this tragic play is generally a room in the rear of the building, a species of dead-house, where lie stretched those who have passed into the state of bliss which the opium-smoker madly seeks—an emblem of the long sleep to which he is blindly hurrying.’ [Ought *Christian* merchants to labour for wealth by providing the means for such orgies as these ! Ought Englishmen thus to contend to deserve that name of ‘barbarians,’ which the Chinese so freely bestow upon them ?] When the British had arrived to land and take Tehusan, ‘During the whole of that night (says lord J.) the shore presented a most beautiful spectacle, the hills around and suburbs appearing a moving mass of variegated light. In China, no individual ever moves out at night without painted lanterns, carrying them in their hands, or on short bamboos. By their help we could perceive that crowds were busy throwing up some more of their wretched embankments, and placing gingalls and fresh guns in position.’ When the place had been evacuated, ‘At last (continues his lordship) we came to the chumpin’s (admiral’s) house : the gates leading to the entrance-yard were painted with huge ungainly figures, denoting, they said, Justice and Punishment. On one side was the room of Justice ; and thumb-screws and rattans were seen lying about. The path to the inner apartment, called the ‘Hall of Ancestors,’ lay through an open court, round which were the offices of the government clerks. Some letters and papers half-finished, showed the haste with which they had evacuated the town. Passing through the court, we entered a guardhouse, which led again to a trellised walk, at the south end of which was the hall. Here, on the couches, were the pipes half-smoked, and the little cups filled with the untasted tea ; cloaks, mandarins’ caps, and swords, lay about in confusion. Following up our search, we at last came to the apartments of the ladies : these rooms were curiously furnished, and strewn with clothes of all descriptions, and for all purposes. Silks, fans, china, little shoes, crutches, and paint-pots—the articles of a Chinese lady’s toilet—lay tossed in a sad and tell-tale mêlée ; and many of the fairy shoes were appropriated by us as lawful *loot*’ (Bengalee for plunder). The following is lord J.’s description of some houses of the town of Ting-hac-been. ‘The interior of some of the houses was found beautifully furnished and carved : one that is now inhabited by the governor, and is believed to have been the property of a literary character, was, when first opened, the wonder and admiration of all. The different apartments open round the centre court, which is neatly tiled ; the doors, window-frames, and pillars, that support the pent-roof, are carved in the most chaste and delicate style ; and the interiors of the ceilings and wainscots are lined with fretwork, which it must have required the greatest care and nicety to have executed. The furniture was in the same keeping, denoting a degree of taste which the Chinese have not in general credit for with us. The bed-places in the sleeping apartments of the ladies were large dormitories, for they can hardly be called beds : at one corner of the room is a separate chamber, about eight feet square, and the same in height ; the exterior of this is usually painted red, carved and gilt ; the entrance is through a circular aperture, three feet in diameter, with sliding panels ; in the interior is a couch of large proportions, covered with a soft mat, and having thick curtains of mandarin silk ; the inside of the bed is polished and painted, and a little chair

and table are the remaining furniture of this extraordinary dormitory. Many of the public buildings excited great astonishment among those who fancied they were in a half-barbarous country. Their public arsenals were found stocked with weapons of every description, placed with the greatest neatness and regularity in their different compartments; the clothes for the soldiers were likewise ticketed, labelled, and packed in large presses; and the arrows, which, from their size and strength, drew particular attention, were carefully and separately arranged. To each arsenal is attached a fire-engine, similar to those used in our own country. The government-pawnbroker's shop was also a source of interest; in it were found dresses and articles of every kind, evidently belonging to the upper as well as to the lower classes,—for many of the furs here taken were of valuable descriptions; each article had the owner's name attached, and the date of its being pawned: this is one of the plans of the local government for raising supplies. Very few women were found in any of the houses, although, as it afterwards appeared, whole families of Chinese were then residing in the town, locked up in their dwellings, and were not discovered until the ulterior occupation of the city by the troops for winter-quarters. All the women we saw here had the little feet which, to the south, are generally the appendage of the higher orders, and made use of a crutch when walking. Many of the silks taken in the houses of mandarins and people of wealth, were of the finest textures and covered with magnificent embroideries.' The timid character of the main body of the Chinese people is thus shown. 'As I walked one evening during this period from a temple where I had been on duty, with the adjutant-general, my path lay alongside a tank, on the border of which a sentry was posted to protect the magistrate's office. He had under his charge a Chinese prisoner, seized for some

slight offence. Having passed on to the office, I remarked, on my return, in an hour's time, the same sentry looking anxiously in the water, and his charge missing; casting my eyes in the same direction, I saw a man's head and long tail floating in the tank, which was scarcely knee-deep. The prisoner must have been so terrified at the ordeal to be undergone, that he sprang from the sentry's charge into the water; and he 'not conceiving (to use his own expression) that the man would or could drown himself, left him there to cool.' So determined and frightened, however, at the new barbarian lawgivers, had the poor man been, that he must have held his head under the water until life was nearly extinct; for when taken out, although medical aid was immediately procured, not the slightest symptom of animation was apparent.' The interior of the isle of Tchusan is thus described: 'After traversing for some miles a luxuriant sea of paddy fields, the way wound up the side of the mountains, through a lonely pass; the path here was cut into easy flights of steps; and these passages, which are numerous through the whole island, are all formed in the same manner. The surrounding hills were covered with the tea plant, cotton, dwarf oak, and a species of arbutus, rich with its red fruits; whilst their lofty summits towered on high, clad in the bright green pasture. The long valleys seen from the ascent, stretched from the mouths of the different ravines, some lost in the many windings in the hills, whilst others again swept down to the sea-shore, laden with their luxuriant crops of rice, bending to the morning breeze; and far away over the curious buildings of Tinghae, the British fleet lay anchored on the sleeping water. Here and there, as if dropped at random upon the sides of the hills, were clumps of fine trees; and, peeping through their thick foliage, the roofs of houses and temples diversified the scene. Amongst many

of the beautiful groves of trees which here invite the wanderer to repose, spots are selected as the resting-places of mortality; and, gazing on these tranquil scenes, where the sweet clematis and other fragrant flowers help to decorate the last home of man, the most careless eye cannot fail to mark the beauties of the grave. Our halting-places were generally in the temples; and the villages supplied us with provisions. The Chinese, so far as these joss-houses are concerned, show very little respect for their religion. Amongst themselves they put them to the same purpose as we did for our troops; and mandarins and travellers of all descriptions, use them as caravansaries on their journeys; the mandarins, indeed, if their rank is superior to the joss's, as a god, even place the latter outside the building during their sojourn.' The kindly disposition of the Loo Choo people is briefly mentioned by lord Jocelyn. 'I may here mention,' says his lordship, 'an occurrence which shows the character of some, at least, of the inhabitants of the Chinese seas in the brightest colours. One of the transports, called the Indian Oak, had been sent from Tchusan in the month of July, or beginning of August, with the letters of the expedition, and was unfortunately wrecked on the coast of Great Loo Choo, which island captain Basil Hall describes in one of his books. Luckily for the wrecked mariners, they fell into the hands of good Samaritans; for the kindness of the natives exceeded all that has hitherto been known. They stood on the beach ready to receive them with open arms, changed their dripping clothes for their own, brought them into their houses and fed them, and not content with this; waded along the coast, endeavouring to pick up the articles washed from the vessel, and returning them to the right owners; who all declare that they do not believe a single nail of the vessel that was driven on shore was appropriated by a native

without permission! Their greatest anxiety was to send home the remains to queen Victoria; and at length they decided upon building a junk out of her relics, to send to England, as they said, to her majesty.' This junk actually arrived subsequently at Tchusan; and we must say we hope the British nation will afford its utmost protection to a race so truly Christian in conduct, whatever may be their religious faith, as the Loo Choo people.

We must, while on the subject of China, speak of the settlement of Macao. The town of Macao (pronounced *Macaw*) is still regarded as a Portuguese territory by the Portuguese, though not so by the Chinese. It is in China, and situated at the southern point of the Canton river, eighty miles from Canton by sea. It is built on a low sandy promontory stretching southward from the island of Macao, which is divided by a narrow channel from the larger island of Kiang-shan-hien. The town extends across the central part of the peninsula from east to west, and has regular but narrow streets. There are some churches and convents (Portuguese) in it; but a wall built by the Chinese across the isthmus, is carefully guarded by that people, who will not suffer Europeans to pass it. The harbour, being on the side away from Canton, though safe, is rarely used; so that, though the Portuguese boast of having had Macao as a settlement 200 years, they have gradually neglected it, insomuch that the rocky island of Lintin, thirty miles north-east of the town, up the river or æstuary, now receives the vessels before they proceed to Canton, and has engrossed the large opium smuggling trade of Macao. In proof that the Portuguese have no real sovereignty at Macao, they pay to the Chinese an annual ground rent of 500 taels, and a tax upon all shipping; while mandarins periodically examine their forts. One of that order also resides continually in the town, and is in fact the spy and governor: he

rules the Chinese in Macao, 35,000 in number, and leaves to the settlers, amounting to less than 5000, including slaves and a few English, the privilege of ruling themselves. The opium for the Chinese market is solely procured from the Anglo-Indian territory: that of Patna and Benares is made into small cakes, and that of Malwa (exported from Bombay) into balls. It being a great object to be first in the market, the drug is conveyed in fast-sailing clippers to Lintiu, where the cargoes are transferred to receiving-ships, stationed at well-known positions on the coast of China. These ships are always effectively manned and armed, to enable them to resist any sudden attack, either by mandarins or the pirates that rove about this coast in great numbers. They for the most part lie at anchor some miles from land, and at stations where the Chinese opium-merchant, from long habit, is able to find them. Here they are always certain of obtaining a ready sale for the pernicious drug, and at prices which at times repay the original purchaser many hundreds per cent. No credit being given, the purchases are made by the Chinese with ready money—an additional incitement to the Anglo-Indian merchant to continue the trade.

The following letter from the rev. Charles Gutzlaff to William Mathieson, esq., gives what may be regarded, from the writer's knowledge of China and the Chinese, an accurate prospect of the advantages to be expected by British traders from the late conquests. 'Tchusan, October 28, 1842. Dear sir: The six millions of the first instalment have been duly received from the commissioners, who intend, if possible, to discharge the three millions of Hong merchants' debts at Canton, and then to take two years for paying the remaining twelve millions. Shang-hai has already recovered from the shock; Ningpo is reviving; and Tinghae, in this island, is at present in a more flourish-

ing condition than it was before the capture—so much for the beneficial change. There are at present six merchant vessels, mostly brigs, in this harbour, busily at work to dispose of their cargoes.

'There can be no doubt that the commerce to this part of the world will soon be considerable, if our merchants will not overstock the markets by overtrading on too sanguine expectations. Of the new ports you will already have heard. Shang-hai, the only emporium for central China, and enabled by inland communication by water to transport goods with ease, offers the largest prospect for imports of cotton and woollen manufactures. It will furnish, in return, raw silk of the best description, some green teas, and also a few silk and cotton manufactures that are still in demand in England, or are carried in English and American bottoms to South America. However, the resources of this emporium remain still to be developed; and judging from the favourable situation, and the present extensive maritime native trade it now enjoys, it will be our largest port for importations. Ningpo has considerable capital at command—will furnish us with green teas, and some raw silk—take off our hands a good deal of cotton goods and woollens—and also receive in moderate quantities Straits produce, for which Shang-hai is, however, the principal mart.

'Futchoo, the metropolis of Fokeen, furnishes our black teas, and will, therefore, have the largest exportation of our trade, and take in return principally raw cotton, and a few manufactures for home consumption. To this place I have myself been appointed, and shall proceed to the town within a few days, if I have not to remain during the winter here in the magistracy.

'Amoy will be a regular depot for every thing. It will furnish us with the cheaper kinds of black teas that grow on the coast; hemp, camphor, and sugarcandy from Formosa; and

a great quantity of sundries, such as umbrellas, alum, and coarse china-ware for the Indian market ; and will take almost every thing in exchange, (for the merchants of that city are the carriers of China,) but principally raw cotton.—So much may be said in general. The particulars will be known very soon. Wishing you most sincerely every blessing from the Father of all good and perfect gifts, I have the honour to call myself, dear sir, your obliged—CHARLES GUTZLAFF.

PERSECUTION OF THE DAMASCENE JEWS.—A catholic priest, named Thomaso, of the capuchin order, who had lived thirty-three years at Damascus, disappeared suddenly in February, 1840, together with his servant, under strong suspicion of having been murdered. Shortly afterwards, a charge was preferred against the Jews of the city, that the monk had been immolated by them to obtain his blood for the feast of unleavened bread. A Jew, by trade a barber, aged 20, was apprehended, father Thomaso having been last seen at his house ; and after being subjected for three days to the torture, he accused seven of the most wealthy inhabitants of Damascus (Jews), as having been concerned in the murder. The merchants were immediately seized ; two of them died under the torture ; the remaining five saved their lives by admitting the truth of the charge. The consequence was an extensive persecution of the Jews by authority of the Egyptian governor (Syria being at the time in Mehemet Ali's power) ; they were beaten, fined, their children every where imprisoned, and a general massacre was alone prevented by the arrival at Damascus of M. Pieritz, formerly a Rabbin, but now chief of the converted Jews (Christians) of Jerusalem. On oath, that person declared that the Jewish religion, as at present maintained, so far from requiring the use of human blood in the unleavened bread, expressly forbids the eating or drinking of any

blood. Time was now gained to apply to English and other European consuls ; and on the facts being known in this country, sir Moses Montefiore, one of the chief English Jews, headed a deputation of wealthy members of his communion to Mehemet Ali, and obtained relief for his suffering brethren. Notwithstanding all this, and the oath of M. Pieritz, there is reason to believe that an illiterate and superstitious portion of the Jews of the East do consider human blood necessary to the perfection of the bread or cake used at the feast in question ; but that murder should be committed for the purpose of obtaining it, we can only think an invention of the Mahometans, who have, of late years, shown less regard than Christians for the persecuted descendants of Abraham.

NEW ZEALAND COLONISED BY THE ENGLISH, 1840.—Tasman discovered these islands, two in number, 1642, and gave them the name of Staten Land. Captain Cook was the first to land on them ; but he was received with hostility by the savage inhabitants. One of them is mountainous, barren, and thinly populated ; but the other is in every respect more inviting, and capable of producing every sort of European fruit and vegetable. The climate is remarkably temperate and equable. The Van Diemen's land people having recently brought about a commerce with the New Zealanders (at a distance of 1200 miles), a company was formed in England, 1839, for the colonisation of the islands ; and captain J. Hobson went out with the first cargo of emigrants from London in August of that year, as superintendent of commerce. He was constituted lieutenant-governor by the crown, and the islands acknowledged a British colony, 1840 ; and the islands have been erected into an episcopal see, of which the rev. G. A. Selwyn went out as first bishop, 1841. It is always wise to regard the *pro* and *con* on occasions of such import as induce the respectable and

poorer classes to leave their native land, in the hope of bettering their condition ; and we will give the *con* first in the shape of a narrative, by Joshua Newburn. That person was articled by his father, a respectable freeman of London, for the term of three years, to a captain Plant, master of a whaler, bound to the South Seas, named the Marquis of Lansdowne. After a voyage of three months and fifteen days from the date of leaving Portsmouth, the ship reached the Bay of Islands on the New Zealand coast, where she brought up ; and young Newburn, who was then but fifteen years of age, having suffered much sickness on board, obtained leave to go ashore, to seek medical advice. As there were several canoes manned with natives around the ship, trading with the crew, Newburn took the advantage of bargaining with a rungateer, or lead boatman, to take him ashore ; but after they had left the ship, instead of the men rowing into the mouth of the harbour to the English settlements, they made away for a sandy beach at some distance off, and, having dragged him on shore, they stripped him quite naked, beating him at the same time with their paddles, till they left him insensible ; they then took to the canoe and made off. As soon as he had partially recovered from the effects of their violence, he wandered about the island in quest of a human habitation ; desirous, if possible, of alighting upon some white man. This he continued to do for two days and nights, making the best of his way through forests of fern, breast-high, which (he being quite bereft of clothing) shockingly chafed and lacerated his body. On the third morning, as he sat under a tree, famished with hunger, and exhausted with fatigue, he was perceived by two native youths, the sons of a chief living hard by ; who, pitying his condition, conducted him to the hut of their father, who was lying sick upon a mat. Seeing that he was destitute of clothing, he was furnished with an

old pair of canvas trousers and a tattered shirt ; and having afforded him such refreshment as his circumstances would admit of, the man sent him to a neighbouring chief, who, he said, would use him well. To follow the life and adventures of this young man from that period up to the time of his quitting the country for England, would occupy the space of a large volume. He is now in London, and although he speaks his native language correctly, it is with difficulty that he at times can find words wherewith to express his ideas. His body is cicatrized in many places, from the wounds he has from time to time received from the spears and knives of the natives, whilst he was engaged under different chiefs, contending with militant tribes ; and his face has undergone the horrible operation of tattooing, which gives him the appearance of a New Zealand chief. Although he is now only in his twenty-fifth year, from the acute sufferings he has undergone (having been at one period exposed for fourteen months in the bush), he appears considerably older, and his constitution has been so severely shattered, that it is quite impossible that he could have subsisted another year, had he remained on the island. He speaks the New Zealand language with the utmost fluency, and became ultimately so thoroughly initiated into the ways, habits, and manners of the natives, that they identified him with themselves, and styled him by a term of distinction 'Mootooah,' which means 'the tattooed spirit.' He states that the first instance of human butchery he witnessed in the island was shortly after his arrival. A canoe landed a crew of natives, whilst he was standing on the beach near a pah, or village, named Korozaika ; he perceived two females among them, who were particularly good-looking ; among them was a very powerfully-made man, who held a tomahawk in his hand, and who followed close upon the heels of the women as they proceeded on the

beach, when he suddenly stepped before one of them, and with one blow of his weapon nearly severed her head from her body; he afterwards performed the same tragical operation upon the other female, and left them weltering in their blood upon the beach. As soon as he had sufficiently collected himself, he ran home to the pah, appalled at what he had seen, and communicated, as well as he could, the circumstance to his chief, fearing that himself and his tribe might be beset by the party. Upon inquiry, however, it was discovered that the women were the slaves of a neighbouring chief, who had given his command that they should be tomahawked out of his own settlement, for their disobeying his orders with regard to his children. He, moreover, states that some time afterwards, when he was at a pah called 'Warakaika,' he bore witness to one of the most revolting acts of butchery that, it could be destined for the human eye to behold. The chief of the tribe under which he served had waged war with the chief of another tribe, located in a pah a short distance off them. They sallied forth just before daybreak, armed with muskets, spears, and tomahawks (for the natives, he says, when they want to surprise an enemy, consider this the most seasonable time, entertaining an idea that sleep lays its hand more heavily upon the slumberer at that particular period, than any other that is appropriated to repose); and the chief having fired off a musket on their arrival at the pah, as a signal for the commencement of hostilities, they all began the war dance, which was kept up for about two minutes, when they fired their muskets into the mat-houses of the enemy, and then took to their spears and tomahawks. After a desperate conflict the pah surrendered, and the tribe were made prisoners and bound. Then the chief of his tribe went round to each prisoner, and despatched the whole of them, one after another, by striking them on the head with

his tomahawk. He moreover adds, that there were among the number of the captives one chief of high rank, as also a seer or diviner, and a noted warrior, who were all three seated upon a rush mat by themselves. The chief of his tribe advanced towards them, and with his tomahawk tapped their several heads, and drank the blood as it ran from them. Another man of his tribe took out the eyes of the wretched victims and ate them raw, life not being out of the former. They finally cut off their limbs and quartered them, ready for the oven. But the most dreadful feature in this act of massacre was that of a man and woman bound together, the former being the son of the opponent chief of the pah, the latter his wife, who held a child, about nine months old, in her arms. This young warrior had murdered, with his own hand, several of the tribe to which he (Newburn) belonged; and having dragged the woman, after having untied her from her husband, into an adjoining compartment, and after having committed the grossest acts of violence upon her, they tore the infant from her protection, and taking it up by the legs, battered its head against the sides of the hut. As to the unfortunate husband, they cut slices of flesh from his body, and, thrusting the same into his mouth, asked him if it 'was good, and tasted well.' He stopped in this place for two days with his tribe, during which time they were employed in cooking their enemies, in such a manner as to keep them for some length of time. This process is performed by first cutting away all the flesh from the bones, and separating the lean from the fat; the fat is fried in earthen vessels to yield a lard; the lean is baked in the oven. The latter is then put into calabashes, and the fat poured over it; by this means the meat will keep sound for upwards of twelve months.'

We now come to the *pro*, which is derived from a book written by a son

of lord Petre, who emigrated to New Zealand in 1839. 'It has frequently been stated in the newspapers of New South Wales and of this country,' says Mr. Petre, 'that the first settlers at Port Nicholson suffered great privations, and even sometimes were in want of food. There never was the slightest foundation for such statements. From the hour of our landing at Port Nicholson in February, 1840, to that of my departure in March last, we were amply supplied with provisions. The company's importations of flour were large and regular, and trade with the natives furnished us with such abundance of fresh pork and potatoes, that we never had to depend upon salt provisions: cattle and sheep were brought to us from New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, and latterly fresh meat was constantly on sale at the following prices:—Beef and mutton from 8*d.* to 1*s.*; and pork from 4*d.* to 6*d.* Milch cows were sufficiently numerous to afford milk and butter for constant sale. Poultry and eggs were scarce, and of course dear. Fish taken in the harbour, of great variety and excellent quality, was at all times abundant. I firmly believe that there never has been an instance in which the wants of the founders of a colony were so amply supplied from the beginning.' The principal annoyance to which the emigrants were subject was from the backwardness of the government to assist them in the least degree; so that they had but little or no protection against those of their own party who might be induced to pillage or annoy them. Colonel Wakfield, in a letter to the secretary of the New Zealand Company, complains, and with justice, of the conduct of the lieutenant-governor; for, contrary to every just principle of national emigration, he has endeavoured, and in a great degree succeeded, to induce the settlers in Wellington to emigrate to Auckland, offering them free passage, temporary locations rent-free, and other great advantages; thus discouraging and

throwing back one settlement in favour of another. It is delightful to hear, and from such good authority as Mr. Petre's, that the natives from the beginning seem to have received the emigrants with great hospitality, and were much more inclined to be friendly than hostile:—'The principal danger to which it was imagined in this country we were exposed, was the hostility of the natives. Most of us had made anxious inquiries on this subject before we embarked; and our conviction was, that we should be received as friends by the natives, if our conduct towards them were just and friendly. Our most sanguine expectations were completely realized. Our numbers, indeed, astonished them, and they used frequently to ask whether our whole tribe, meaning thereby all the people of England, had not come to Port Nicholson. It is probable, also, that they were overawed by our obvious superiority to any physical force that could have been brought against us in case of disputes. But, however this may be, they received us in the most friendly manner.'

We shall conclude with an extract from the work, in which the author declares his opinion of the country, and proves his sincerity, by asserting himself to be but a *sojourner* here; preparing to return to his home in New Zealand. 'The country certainly possesses every natural capability for a series of rich and flourishing settlements. Of the singular excellence of the climate—of the richness of the soil—of the great fecundity of animal life—of the abundance and variety of the resources of the islands, not a doubt is entertained by those whose opinions rest on experience. The mode of colonisation adopted by the government at home insures, if fairly carried out, a regular increase of labour, in due proportion to the increase of capital and private property in land. The revived spirit of English colonisation seems to direct its chief force on this 'Britain of the South.' For my own

part, I will conclude as I began, by saying that the best proof I can give of the sincerity of my opinion as to the bright prospects of New Zealand as a colony, is the fact of my being but a sojourner here, preparing to return to the place of my former residence in New Zealand.'

UNION OF THE TWO CANADAS, 1840.—The history of the reign must be referred to for the circumstances which led to this measure; but it is doubtful if a beneficial issue can arise from the arrangement. The Lower Canadians, a French stock, with an established Romanist church, have been too long accustomed to be governed by their own laws, and those of the feudal kind, to conform easily to the changes the union must necessarily produce in their habits.

ATTEMPTED ASSASSINATION OF THE QUEEN, 1840.—As queen Victoria and prince Albert were proceeding from Buckingham-palace to visit the duchess of Kent, one Oxford, a servant out of place, discharged two pistols at the royal carriage, but happily without effect. A great deal of interest was taken by the public to fathom the object of the assassin; and while some asserted (as the balls were never found) that the pistols had only been charged with powder, the villain himself declared it otherwise, and was committed to Bethlem for life, as a lunatic.

COURT MARTIAL ON CAPTAIN REYNOLDS.—Few matters of a simply domestic nature have interested the public more of late years, than the trial of captain Reynolds, of the 11th light dragoons, for insubordinate conduct as an officer. It appears that, in consequence of the earl of Cardigan, the commanding officer of the regiment, having been asked at a party at his lordship's house by a lady, 'Why captain Reynolds and his brother were not present?' and the earl answering to the effect 'that the captain should not enter his house again,' or 'that he was not now one of his friends,' captain Reynolds, on ascertaining the reply through the

lady, who had occasioned it by her query, challenged his lordship to fight a duel. The earl, in consequence, submitted the case to the proper parties; and the captain was tried October, 1840, and, being found in error, was cashiered. In the very nature of things, looking at the present admirable discipline of the British army, such *must* have been the issue, however great cause the captain might have to complain of his superior officer; and the result of the court-martial afforded opportunity for the adjutant-general, sir John Macdonald, to address the whole regiment, on the serious evil of insubordination amongst soldiers, and more especially in the case of officers, in the following manly and sensible terms: 'It is the proud characteristic of the British army (said sir John) that its officers are gentlemen by education, manners, and habits; that some are men of the first families in the country, and some of large property; but the rules and regulations of the service require strictly from all, that they should conduct themselves as gentlemen ought, in every situation in which they may be placed. This is required of them by the law which constitutes the army. They are besides required to perform various duties and services, in the care, the discipline, the comfort, and the happiness of the non-commissioned officers and soldiers under their command, in aid, and for the promotion of the views and orders of the immediate superior selected by their sovereign, and entitled to command them by virtue of his and their several commissions, and to their obedience, their subordination, and their respect. But though the regulations of the service require that the officers of the army (continued sir John, in reference to those immediately subordinate to the commander,) should conduct themselves as gentlemen ought, and that they are in general, gentlemen by education, manners, and habits, the general commanding in chief has desired me to

take care that he is not misunderstood. He and his predecessors in office have recommended to be promoted to be officers of the army, non-commissioned officers distinguished by their good conduct, gallantry, and other qualities, and particularly by those qualities which afforded ground for hope that they could be placed in the same class and rank for the performance of the service, as those from whom, on their entrance into the service, it is required, by the articles of war, that they should conduct themselves as gentlemen ought. Such conduct is required from those officers whose merits as non-commissioned officers may have attracted the notice of their superiors. It is but justice to require the same, still more strictly, from those educated as gentlemen. Not only are they required to learn and to perform their duty as officers, and to conduct themselves each in his station as required by the rules and regulations of the service, and to be subordinate to, and to treat with respect, those whom the sovereign has placed over them as their superiors; but the British public feel a greater degree of confidence that these duties will be strictly performed, as each officer from whom they are required is a gentleman by education, and must feel a charge of non-performance of his duty, or disobedience, insubordination, or disrespect, as a stigma.

THE POSTAGE EQUALIZATION ACT, 1840, reduced the charge of carriage of all ordinary letters from one part to another of the united kingdom, that is to say, if their weight exceed not half an ounce, to one penny. By paying a proportionate additional sum, a letter weighing sixteen ounces, one avoirdupois pound, can pass by post; beyond which weight no packet subject to postage shall be received. Being charged thus by weight, and letters not exceeding half an ounce being carried at the rate of one postage, for one penny, letters of one ounce are charged two postages, of

two ounces four postages, of three ounces six postages, and so on; adding two postages for every ounce up to sixteen ounces. If a letter weigh any intermediate weight, that is to say, $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz., $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz., &c., it will be charged as 2 oz., 3 oz., &c.; and if any letter be not paid on being put into the post-office, the receiver of such will have to pay double the sum that should have been pre-paid. Whereas heretofore letters were charged double if placed in envelope covers (nay, if a sheet of paper were cut in half, and the one half were made the cover of the other, it was charged as two letters), they may now go in any form, without extra charge. The privilege of *franking*, enjoyed by members of parliament from the year 1734, was, by the same act, abolished. Thus a letter of the ordinary weight is carried from Bantry in Ireland, across sea, either to *Ultima Thule* in North Britain, or to Dover, for one penny. The scheme was the favourite one of Mr. Rowland Hill, connected with the post-department, London; and there is no doubt of its adoption by the government being a great boon to the intellectual portion of the public. But it was granted by the whig ministry at a moment when the finances of the country could ill afford the yielding of the half a million revenue which the change involved; and the consequent infliction of the income-tax has only convinced all those in the nation who were not before convinced—of the importance, both in public and private arrangements, of waiting for our coach and its equipage, until we can afford to pay the cost of its adoption. Its wheels may otherwise only serve to hurry us to that prison which stands at the end of 'the road to ruin.'

TRIAL OF MADAME LAFFARGE, 1840.—This was an occurrence which wonderfully interested the French people, who, with their usual morbid sympathy for accused 'interesting females,' laboured to convince themselves that the person in question

was an innocent and persecuted being. Madame Laffarge (born Marie Capelle) had married the owner of some iron works in 1839; but, in three days after the union, she told her husband she could never love him, 'since she had long loved another.' On the 14th of January, 1840, the poor man, after eating of a truffled fowl, prepared for dinner by his wife at Glandier, their country-house, was seized with violent retchings, and expired; and though no notice was taken of the matter at the moment, some relatives insisted, after a while, on exhuming the body. It was of course found in a state of decomposition; nevertheless, on having it analysed, MM. Orfila, Duvergier, and Chevalier, who were appointed to conduct the examination, stated that arsenic was to be found in every part. Notwithstanding the swoons and hypertrophia of Madame Laffarge, the sickening palliation of her counsel, M. Paillet, and 'the intense sensation' of a crowded auditory, the murderess was found guilty, and condemned to exposure in the pillory, and hard labour for life.

GLASS WEAVING.—A very elegant manufacture commenced in England, 1840, of mingled glass and silk; and drapery of every description for furniture, and in some instances for dress, has been produced. So beautiful and durable is the material, that the invention will most likely originate a very important branch of English commerce.

MURRAIN AMONG CATTLE.—Throughout the year 1840, cows and oxen in most parts of England suffered an affection of a serious nature. It usually began by blisters breaking out on the lips, which spread to the roof of the mouth and to the tongue; and the parts becoming denuded of skin, the poor animals refused food, and thus often perished from inanition. As the disorder proceeded, the hoofs came off, and rapid emaciation was followed by death. As the disorder was infectious, there was no hope of saving large herds,

unless the sick were quickly separated from the sound: in some instances the disease was prevented from spreading by vaccinating those not apparently infected; and many which had taken the disease, were cured speedily by the daily administration to each animal of half a pound of salt, the like quantity of sulphur, two ounces of ginger, and one ounce of saltpetre, in warm water, linseed porridge being also given in the course of the day.

ENGLISH NATIONAL MUSIC.—Although the English nation has proverbially no natural genius for music, maugre its Saxon descent, a bold attempt was made, 1840, to introduce M. Wilhem's German method of teaching to sing at sight, among the London folk. Mr. John Hullah, one of M. Wilhem's disciples, was the leader of the movement; and so much was his scheme considered likely to produce extensive benefit, that there were not wanting persons in high station to propose a general parochial adoption of the system, in the hope of producing what is certainly very desirable—a well-ordered plan of church choral singing. To enable the gallery children of our churches even to gain a knowledge of time, would be something; and the positive confusion of the organ-loft being thus supplanted by order, something like harmony might, however mechanically, result. That a correct notion of the varieties of musical sound *could* be afforded to that great mass of the English people not possessing an *ear*, as it is technically called, had never been credited until recently; and why that natural gift of 'ear' should be, comparatively speaking, so rare among a race so healthy, so active, and so, in the main, intellectual as our countrymen, physiology has never yet attempted to inform us. M. Wilhem's method 'of teaching singing to the million' is divided into two courses, and the first course into two parts. In the first part of the first course, the elementary principles of music are explained and

inculcated ; the construction and practice of a scale—the shapes, names, and places of notes—time, &c., are rendered clear and comprehensible, because placed in their proper order ; and they become interesting both on this account, and because the explanation of them is immediately followed by their application. A series of exercises for the practice of intervals, completes the first course ; and these exercises are interspersed with songs which have a direct relation to a particular interval, and which thus serve as graduated applications of the skill acquired. The second part of the first course is an amplification of the first, beginning with an explanation of the various scales used in music, and containing also a second series of studies of intervals. The second course goes a third time over the same ground, encountering greater difficulties, and embracing a still wider range of music. Reading the notes of music at sight, has been acquired by this method, in an astonishingly rapid manner, by persons hitherto wholly unacquainted with musical notation ; and what is equally singular, numbers without ‘car’—who, in a word, judge between the sublime portions of Handel’s slow movements and the tunes of modern quadrilles, alone by a perception of the difference in ‘time’—have been enabled by the Wilhem method, to sustain very lengthened passages with the voice, and that with a correct enunciation of each sound. We certainly should like to find music, as it was among the Athenians, made part and parcel of an Englishman’s liberal education ; since its cultivation would then be attempted by the common people, and a powerful means would be afforded for softening the naturally intractable character of northern islanders. In France, Germany, Spain, and Italy, the lowest orders play on some instrument, or sing melodiously ; and instead of brusque and repulsive manners, as witnessed in large masses of our labouring

people, they possess all the politeness of their betters. Monsieur le Commissionnaire, the little gentleman who carries your parcel for you in France for a sous, will, on receiving pay, bow and thank you with a grace that at once astonishes the Englishman, accustomed to the bluff manners of his home inferiors ; and, if you search for the same useful personage in the evening, you will find him with his kit, or his violin, playing to others, or dancing to the not ill-performed music of his companions. In a religious country, which we rejoice to think England comparatively is, much advantage might be made of this softening of the common heart by means of national musical instruction. We therefore wish Mr. Hullah all success.

RAILWAY IMPROVEMENTS.—Dr. Lardner’s prognostic (vol. ii. 605) ‘that the steam-engine itself will dwindle into insignificance,’ seems about to be verified speedily enough. An ‘atmospheric railway,’ as it is designated, whereon coaches are to be propelled by compressed air in lieu of steam (the atmosphere forcing its way into an exhausted receiver or tube laid down between the rails), was tried, in connexion with the Great Western English railway, with nearly complete success, 1840. By it carriages travel at the rate of thirty miles per hour, as if by magic ; and those who have been accustomed to see and hear the cumbrous locomotive engines smoking and roaring along the rails, will, ere long, be astonished to observe trains of carriages moving with the same rapidity, yet silently, and without any perceptible power to occasion their motion. The ‘voltaic telegraph’ is another triumph of art. On the same Great Western was tried, 1841, this apparatus, whereby intelligence is conveyed at the inconceivable rate of 288,000 miles per second, by means of electrical currents passing through coils of copper wire. These coils are placed immediately behind some fine

magnetic needles, which operate upon a circular series of twenty letters, that indicate such terms, either separately or collectively, as they have been arranged to represent. The telegraph will act both by day and night, in all states of the weather, and with a rapidity so superior to that of the common process by semaphores, that one minute only is required for the communication of thirty signals. The inventor is professor Wheatstone; and the first use of it will be on a line laid down from the Paddington station of the Great Western railway to Windsor-castle, and thence to the parliament-houses and Buckingham palace. When cabinet-councils henceforth sit on momentous questions her majesty can thus be acquainted with the result of the deliberations, as if she were present; and, in the same manner, when the queen presides in person at Windsor over the meetings of her ministers, information that is often suddenly required on such occasions from London, and for which it is usual to wait while an express goes to and fro, will be provided after only a few minutes' instead of some hours' delay, while the council is sitting. If the same system can be adopted (that is, if the cost will permit) for telegraphic communications in general, not only the British public but all Europe will be advantaged; but the semaphore, or other signal already in use, must be still kept for communications that are to cross seas, or any other waters.

CHANGE IN THE CORN LAW, 1841.

--Sir Robert Peel's change of the plan of the act of George IV., was as follows, *retaining the sliding scale*. When wheat is at 59s. to 60s. the quarter, the duty, which was 27s. 8d., is 13s.; at 50s., instead of 36s. 8d., 20s.; at 56s., for 30s. 8d., 16s.; at 60s., for 26s. 8d., 12s.; at 63s., for 23s. 8d., 9s.; at 64s., for 22s. 8d., 8s.; at 70s., for 10s. 8d., 4s.; at 73s., or above, 1s. only. Barley, at 25s. and under 26s., 11s., gradually reduced to 1s., as the price arrives at 37s. and up-

wards. Oats, at 18s. and under 19s., in like manner brought down to 1s., as the price reaches 27s. and upwards. The opponents of the change desired no sliding scale, but a permanent duty; and the premier's adherence to the former was grounded on his determination to protect the agriculture of the country. He proved that 45,000,000 quarters of grain are annually raised by the British farmer, and called on the house of commons to think of the capital engaged in the production of so enormous a quantity, and to recollect what was the amount of social interests connected with the pecuniary ones so involved—how many families, in short, are depending for subsistence upon the means of giving employment to thousands—before they hastily disturbed the laws which determine the application of capital. He admitted that enough wheat could never be grown in England for the supply of its population; though perhaps it already produces barley and oats sufficient. It certainly seems (if we may be allowed to say we can see at all into a question, acknowledged to be one of extraordinary difficulty, from the fact of no settled opinion having been come to, after centuries of legislation thereon), impossible that a fixed duty could be resorted to, and yet protect the farmer. The price of wheat can never be reduced, by any abstract calculation, to such a custom-house standard of price, as to warrant the imposition of a fixed duty. Fixed duties may be applied to articles, the cost and fabric of which may be estimated upon principles of arithmetical calculation, and the quantity of which articles may be regulated, that is enlarged and reduced, according to their consumption and demand; but it would be an absurdity to attempt to apply a fixed duty to corn, raised from the vast machine of the land, which the seasons influence and regulate, and not the hand of man; and the production of which, both as to quality and quantity, as to scarcity and abundance, is entirely beyond human control. For example, could

a duty of 8s. per quarter, the duty recommended by the late committee on import duties, and proposed to lord Melbourne and lord John Russell, have been enforced on wheat in the years 1799, 1800, 1801, in 1812, 1813, 1816, and 1817? Would the public have borne it? Could it have been sustained by the bayonet? Again, what protection would such a duty of 8s. per quarter have afforded in the abundant seasons of 1821, 1822, 1834, and 1835? This is humbly our private opinion, after talking with large west of England proprietors of land; although we know some very sensible practical farmers in the districts immediately round London, who seem to think a fixed duty preferable to a shifting one.

LOSS OF THE SHIP PRESIDENT.—This steam-vessel left New York for England March 11, 1841, and on the next day encountered a storm between Nantucket Shoals and St. George's Bank, in which it is supposed she foundered, with all on board, amounting to 136 persons. Among the passengers were a son of the duke of Richmond, and the celebrated comedian, Tyrone Power.

FIRE AT THE TOWER.—On October 30, 1841, a fire broke out in this ancient fortress of London, which destroyed the grand armoury, containing 300,000 stand of arms besides military trophies. Every man who has a spark of love for his country, or admiration of her greatness, must feel deeply for the constant similar losses she experiences in her public buildings and national monuments, some of which no time nor money can replace. The two houses of parliament in St. Stephen's ancient chapel, the Royal Exchange, York Minster, Nottingham Castle, Plymouth Dock-yard, have recently all suffered wholly or in part by fire; while incendiary attempts have been made on Westminster Abbey, Sheerness Dock-yard, and the fine old church at Thirsk in Yorkshire. The frequency of the calamity seems to prove either that there exists a great deficiency of pro-

per watch and ward about public buildings, or that there are among us diabolical spirits, that are but too successful in accomplishing their fiend-like purpose of destroying for mere destruction's sake.

COMPLETION OF THE THAMES TUNNEL, 1841.—The attempt to form a subway under the bed of the Thames, to connect Rotherhithe with the opposite shore at Old Gravel-lane, Wapping, was revived by Mr. Brunel in 1824, a similar attempt having been made in 1809, upon a much smaller scale; and though the project was then relinquished, from the breaking in of the superincumbent strata, yet the miners having extended their operations to within 130 feet of the opposite shore, it was thought sufficient encouragement for the present undertaking. Accordingly, the sum of 200,000*l.* was raised by transferable shares of 50*l.* each, and the work was begun in March, 1825, by sinking a shaft 50 feet in diameter, and 63 feet below the bed of the Thames, at Rotherhithe. Mr. Brunel's plan was, by means of frame-work, to excavate daily only such a space as could be immediately supported by brick arching; and for this purpose he constructed a machine called a shield, consisting of twelve upright and parallel frames, 22 feet high, and divided into three stories, containing collectively thirty-six cells for the workmen, each of whom provided for his safety by covering his own cell with small boards, technically called 'polings.' This machine, which formed a powerful fence against the falling in of the superincumbent ground, and also served the purpose of a cofferdam, was supported at the base on broad shoes, and for its progressive movement was provided with legs in each of the lower cells, by which means each frame could be separately moved forward as the excavation proceeded, the miners working in front, and the bricklayers in their rear completing the structure of the arcade. The shield was first inserted under a substantial and com-

fact bed of clay; but the workmen had scarcely proceeded more than nine feet, when this stratum was found to break off abruptly, leaving the work exposed to a considerable influx of water and fluid sand, which tended materially to retard the rate of progress for a month, after which the shield was again brought under substantial ground, and the tunnel was secured to the extent of 260 feet. A cavity having formed by a run of ground in a fluid state between the head of the shield and the bottom of the river, the latter broke down at high tide, and for a time obstructed the progress of the work; but the cavity was filled up, and the workmen continued their labours with increased caution. After 350 feet of the tunnel had been completed, on the removal of one of the poling boards covering the front, some loose ground, impelled by the weight of an extraordinary high tide, forced its way with irresistible force into the work; but by the means which had been provided for emergencies of the kind, the irruption of the river was prevented. The work was continued, and notwithstanding several occurrences of a discouraging nature, it advanced at the rate of about fourteen feet a week, and sometimes of three feet per day; and a very considerable progress was made, with great promise of ultimate success, during several months. In the end, however, a similar accident to that which occasioned the abandonment of the former undertaking, but much more fatal in its effects, caused Mr. Brunel's attempt, like his predecessor's, to be suspended; and the excavation, after a great expenditure of money, and the loss of several lives, was discontinued in 1828. By the irruption which suspended the work (which had then passed the centre of the river), six persons were drowned, and Mr. Brunel, jun. narrowly escaped a like termination of his life,—being literally *carried up the shaft* on the top of the waters, by the violent in-burst of the stream. In January,

1835, however, by government aid and fresh subscriptions, the work was once more resumed; and from that period till the communication was opened with the opposite shore in November, 1841, no important obstacle interfered with its progress. The tunnel consists of a double archway, or two parallel arcades, each lit with gas, forming distinct ways for going and returning, and each containing a roadway and footway. The form of the arcade is cylindrical, 15 feet high by 12 at the base; the two ways, with a separation wall of 4 feet, making 28 feet breadth; the whole mass of masonry extending in breadth and height 37 feet by 22. From the base of the arcade to the head of the river at high water, the whole height is 75 feet, which circumstance, in addition to the unfavourable nature of the ground through which the excavation was to be made, rendered the formation of the Thames Tunnel one of the most adventurous and arduous enterprises in the art of engineering ever attempted. The width of the river at the part where the tunnel is constructed, together with the currents, displacing of merchant-shipping, &c., occasioned the erection of a bridge impracticable. For his success in this work, and in the block machinery at Portsmouth, the works in Woolwich arsenal, &c., the engineer was knighted by queen Victoria, 1841. Sir Marc Isambart Brunel was the first to go through the opening which united the two shores at Wapping, November 24, 1841; and king Frederick William IV. of Prussia, happening to be on a visit to queen Victoria in the succeeding January, inserted the key-brick of the last inch of the work. The whole length of the tunnel (1200 feet) was thus completed in less than seventeen years from the first sinking of the shaft.

THE TAYLOR AND RANDOLPH INSTITUTE FOUNDED, 1841.—This institution for the study of the modern languages and of the fine arts in the university of Oxford, resulted from

the two bequests of sir Robert Taylor and Dr. Randolph. A building, to carry out the respective intentions of the testators, was commenced in 1841, under the above title, from the designs of Mr. Cockerell; and as the object of the first-named legacy was the more important, we shall briefly give the testator's memoir. Robert Taylor (1714—1788) was the son of a stonemason settled in London, who accumulated much money, and excited the envy of his neighbours by displaying himself more prosperous than prudent. He even set up his coach, a thing then very unusual among persons engaged in business, and took a country-house in Essex. Having no value for a liberal education, he placed his son at fourteen under sir Henry Cheere, a respectable sculptor of the day, and then gave him just money enough to visit Rome; whence he was speedily summoned, on account of his parent's illness. On reaching England again, he found that parent dead, and moreover that he had died almost insolvent; and he was compelled to resort to the profession of which he had gained little more than an insight, for bread. He brought himself into some notice by a monument or two in Westminster-abbey, the statue of Britannia at the Bank of England, and by the bas-relief in the pediment of the Mansion-house; but he suddenly abandoned sculpture for architecture, and gradually made his way amongst the gentry, nobility, and the government, from his activity and business-like habits, so as to be constantly employed on private and public buildings, whereby he was enabled (by an economy completely opposed to his father's system) to realise a fortune of 180,000*l.*—though, as he was fond of saying, he had commenced the world with hardly eighteenpence. None of his works are especially distinguished for classical taste; but his best remaining productions are acknowledged to be, a villa he constructed for sir Charles Asgill at Richmond, lord Grimston's seat at Gorhambury,

and the Six Clerks' office, Lincoln's-inn. He was at length surveyor to the Admiralty, Greenwich Hospital, the Foundling, and the Bank of England; to which last he added two wings (since pulled down), copied from the celebrated Bramante, and eulogized at the time as models of taste; and he received the honour of knighthood from king George III. His decease occurred at his residence in Spring-gardens, at the age of 74, 1788; and he bequeathed the whole of his property to his son, the late Michael Angelo Taylor, M. P. (who became, before his decease, father of the house of commons), with the exception of the sum which was to be left to accumulate for the purpose which gave rise to this article.

THE NIGER EXPEDITION.—In order to establish friendly relations with the interior of Africa, an English town had been begun in 1841, at the confluence of the Niger and Tchadda, by the erection of a model farm, under the superintendence of captain Trotter; but, unhappily, fever broke out on board the ships of the expedition in September, and occasioned so many deaths of English officers and men, that the undertaking was compelled to be abandoned, at least until another season. We trust this Malthusian plan of getting rid of an overplus white population will be no more tried: there is nothing either in African trade, or in the satisfaction afforded to the curious in science, to compensate for so grievous a sacrifice of useful and honourable Britons.

ADDITIONAL VICE-CHANCELLORS.—In 1841 an act passed, abolishing the equity jurisdiction of the court of exchequer. Equity judges henceforth sit only in chancery; and two additional vice-chancellors, making three in all, were thereupon appointed to the latter court. The lord chancellor is empowered to appoint one of these, his new assistants, to preside for him in the court of Chancery, whenever he may require such relief; and he has thus increased op-

portunities to attend to the appellate jurisdiction of the house of lords. Some notion of the magnitude and importance of the chancery business may be obtained from the fact, that the balance of cash and securities placed to the credit of the various accounts in chancery, amounts to more than forty-two millions! These accounts, originally 12,000, are augmented to 13,600 by the transference to them of the exchequer ones.

DISTILLATION OF SEA-WATER.—M. Lallier obtained a patent, 1841, for an apparatus whereby sea-water is converted, at the rate of thirty gallons, in eight hours, into fresh, so as to be used on ship-board in cases of emergency. The French government, considering the discovery no fallacy, have given M. Lallier's invention every support; and certainly if the water still retain the pure principles of water, after undergoing the purgative process, the talents of M. Lallier have been most beneficially employed.

IVORY MADE FLEXIBLE.—In 1841, M. Charriere, a Frenchman, published his discovery of a mode whereby ivory could be made to form bending tubes, so as to be available for surgical probes, and other instruments. This is effected by steeping the material in a prepared acid. It hardens again on becoming dry, and its flexibility returns on being again immersed in the preparation. By the same process any long bone is softened, so as to be tied easily in a knot.

WOOD PAVEMENT was first tried in the streets of London, 1839, but was somewhat extensively adopted, 1841. In a recent report made by Mr. Stevens to the Southwark Literary Institution, it appears, 'that this novel mode of forming the surfaces of carriage-ways has already occasioned great increase in the business of shop-keepers situated where the system has been adopted; that the value of such house property has been considerably improved; that the quantity of mud collected upon wood pav-

ing by the scavengers, (that in Oxford-street, for instance,) is barely one-fourth of that previously removed from the same place, the principal part (if not all) of which is brought upon the wood from adjoining pavings; that the fractures of gas and water-pipes, under the best system of wood-paving, bear a proportion of scarcely one-sixth to those previously occurring; and that recent improvements in grooving the surfaces of the blocks, as exhibited in St. Paul's churchyard, Holborn, and Regent-street, have obviated all objections on the score of slipperiness.' For our own part, however, we must humbly say, that nothing can be more painful than to witness the struggles of horses to keep their feet in narrow streets, such as the Poultry, that have been paved with wood; and we sincerely trust a complete security against slipperiness will be obtained, before the system of wood-paving is allowed to be generally adopted. There is also danger arising to people who attempt to cross the road-ways, from the circumstance of the absence of that warning sound of the approach of wheels, which the common stone pavement causes to be given; and this is especially the case after the close of day.

ENGLISH BISHOP OF JERUSALEM, 1842.—It was fair to anticipate that when the British forces had so mainly contributed to the restoration of Syria to the Porte, some spot, however small, would be obtained by England on the shores of Palestine, for the two-fold purpose of keeping up a friendly correspondence and trade with the Turks and natives of that interesting country, and of aiding our naval guard over the Mediterranean, so conservative of the peace of Europe. Such an arrangement would have been highly gratifying to the native Syrians, and by no means offensive to the Turks. The British government, however, failed to make any claim; and it was left for the English church to attempt a constant intercourse with the country,

by sending to Jerusalem a bishop, who should reside continually there, and draw into a congregation what was supposed a numerous body of Jews converted to Christianity. To this certain English prelates were instigated (somewhat precipitately), in order to meet the wishes of the king of Prussia, who made a liberal offer of furnishing half any endowment which should have in view to improve (in a somewhat indefinite manner) the various discordant communions of Christians, and to convert the Jews, and if possible the Turks, now resident at Jerusalem. Dr. Howley, archbishop of Canterbury, accordingly ordained to the office, in November, 1841, Dr. Michael Solomon Alexander, a convert from Judaism, and sent him in February, 1842, to the Levant, with a letter commendatory from himself 'to the right reverend his brothers in Christ, the prelates and bishops of the ancient and apostolic churches in Syria, and the countries adjacent.' The bishop was landed at Jaffa, and, followed by a cavalcade of fifty persons, was conveyed, with his wife and children, in a large oriental litter, over the rocky and precipitous tracks which lead to the holy city. On approaching it, the cavalcade was augmented by the junction of the Bey, who, accompanied by the janissaries of the pacha, had been sent to compliment the prelate and his chief officer, colonel Rose, on their arrival. The procession, now 100 persons, entered Jerusalem by the Bethlehem gate, the wildly accoutred and unearthly-looking Bedwans, who had been gamboling round the party at the full speed of their desert horses, at the same instant firing off their muskets. As the party advanced, the guns thundered forth, not a salute to the bishop, but one for the eve of the 'courban bairam'; for, by an odd chance, the protestant bishop made his entry into one of the four holy cities of the Islam (the others are Mecca, Medina, and Damascus,) on occasion of one of the greatest

festivals of the Moslem religion. Tahir Pacha received the prelate with due honour; and, as far as that day went, nothing could be more prosperous, or promising, or impressive.

Whether or not bishop Alexander's lot may prove a happy one, remains to be shown. It by no means is apparent why we should send such an expedition to Jerusalem, simply to further the king of Prussia's designs; or what chance there is of converting the Jews of that city or district, more than any other Jews in the whole world. To intrude an English bishop into a place where there is no English congregation, (and Dr. Pusey has stated to the archbishop of Canterbury that only *four persons* constitute the population of the Jerusalem diocese,) and which is under the civil dominion of the Turks, and within the ecclesiastical rule of other Christian societies, too sadly numerous and discordant to be enumerated—Roman, Greek, corrupt Oriental, less perfectly constituted German communities, Druses, and Maronites—seems a strange method to adopt for improving either the general intercourse of Englishmen with Syria, or that of the English church with the modern uncatholic prelates 'of its ancient and apostolic churches.' The very circumstance of a *bishop* so called, coming among the conflicting communions *with a wife and family*, occasioned, we are told, some jeers; and this reminds us of the Italian who, after visiting London, said, upon his return, that he had put down as the most remarkable incident of his travels, his seeing a carriage draw up at a shop in Bond-street, out of which came, 'un vescovo,' and then, to his utter dismay, 'una vescova!—e—o cielo!—dei vescovini.'

PREDICTED EARTHQUAKE IN LONDON.—According to a silly monkish prophecy of the fourteenth century, which the empirical Dr. Dee echoed (on finding the lines containing the prediction) in the sixteenth, the great metropolis was to be swallowed up on March 17th, (St. Pa-

trick's day) 1842; and numerous among the low Irish, firmly relying upon the verity of both monk and empiric, packed up their effects, and started for the Emerald Isle. In vain were the magistrates appealed to, to stay the fugitives: off they would go, let who would be their employers. Other natives of the same land, on hearing from some of their friends that only the 'big church of St. Paul's' was to go down, consented to remain, and at earliest break of day assembled in the neighbourhood of the cathedral, to see it sink! So great was the delusion of these people, that they actually believed they saw the fane gradually diminish in height—till the close of day compelled them retire. Crowds of not only Irish, but English, 'went out of town for the day,' to escape the apprehended destruction of the whole city; and thousands congregated on Highgate-hill, to witness the awful catastrophe. There were even instances of suicide having been occasioned by a dread of the visitation, both by drowning and hanging, as shown by witnesses at inquests on the respective bodies of the deluded fanatics! 'Alas! poor human nature.'

DREADFUL FIRE AT HAMBURG.—One sixth of this ancient city was destroyed by a fire, which broke out in the night of May 4, 1842, at a tobaccoist's house, in the narrow street, called Deichstrasse, and continued its ravages for four days; during which, churches and other large buildings, were voluntarily blown up, to prevent the spreading of the flames. The loss of property must have been necessarily immense, when it is recollected that Hamburg is the depot of merchandize for half Europe; and when the warehouse of one inhabitant alone had British manufactures therein to the value of 120,000*l*. A large sum was instantly raised in London for the houseless sufferers; and throughout Germany the same benevolent wish was shown to mitigate the severity of so calamitous a

visitation. The great preponderance of wood over brick in the buildings, added to the awkward method adopted by the middle classes to escape loss, by piling up their furniture in the narrow streets, (the heaps soon catching fire from the fall of burning fragments, and igniting the houses on either side,) are said to have been the main causes of the extraordinary extension of the fire. Six London insurance offices were collectively answerable for half a million to Hamburg residents.

EARTHQUAKE IN ST. DOMINGO.—The town of Cape Haytien, styled 'the palace of the Antilles,' so magnificent and numerous were its costly marble buildings, in the north of the island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, or Hayti, was suddenly and totally destroyed by an earthquake, during the evening of May 7th, 1842, with the loss of not less than 10,000 lives of its mixed population. Shocks were at the same time felt at Port-au-Prince, and other parts of the isle; and the visitation was, on the whole, more severe and more extensive in the sphere of its operations, than any since the earthquake which destroyed Lisbon in 1775. In another part of our work will be found a brief history of this isle; the system adopted by the people of which, may serve to show 'the ultra-abolitionist party' what is to be expected by whites at the hands of a freed negro race. No white man is permitted, by the law of the republic, to hold a foot of land within its territory; no white man can marry a Haytien woman, and thereby become entitled to her real or personal estate; and no white man can trade without a special licence, renewable yearly with a heavy fine. The isle has a standing army of 28,000 men, with a militia force of 40,000, although there are less than a million of people; thus making one man in every fifteen a soldier. These free men of colour pass the greater part of their time in sauntering, idling, talking, and playing games of chance

and skill ; and, out of spite for their former state, work merely to live. In a few days after the awful visitation recorded, a revolution broke out in the island, and president Boyer was not only deposed, but put to death !

THE MARQUESAS COLONIZED BY THE FRENCH, 1842. The situation of these islands in the Pacific, where they form a portion of the Oriental Archipelago, is alluded to at vol. ii., p. 114. They were so called by the Spaniards, in honour of the marquis Mendoça de Canete, by Mendana de Neyra, who discovered them in 1595 ; and they extend about 200 miles in a north-west and south-east direction. A wide channel divides them into two groups ; of which the south-western contains five and the north-western eight islands. The latter having been discovered by the Americans in 1797, are also called Washington's islands. The largest isles of the southern group are Santa Dominica, or Hiwaoa, Santa Christina, or Tahuata, and Hood's island, or Tiboia. They are each about ten miles long. The principal islands of the northern group are, Noukahivah, or Nohivah, Uahuga, and Uasson, or Roassoa. Noukahivah, the largest, is nearly twenty miles long, and seventy miles in circumference. An elevated ridge of rocky mountains traverses each island lengthways, and in the larger one rises to an elevation of 2000 or 3000 feet. The coast is rocky, abrupt, and beaten by a surf ; no coral reef encircles or protects the islands, though the detritus of coral is abundant on the beach. Noukahivah is of volcanic origin, which may be the case with the rest also. The soil is rich ; in the valleys it is clay mixed with vegetable mould, but on the lower declivities of the hills it is thin, and covered by coarse grass in tufts. There are numerous harbours, and many of them very safe. As the thermometer seldom sinks below sixty-six, the climate is warm : in June it is about eighty. Winter is characterized by abundant

showers of rain ; but sometimes not a drop of rain falls for nine or ten months, and the consequence is famine. The prevailing wind is the eastern trade-wind, which blows strongest in autumn. The islands are all in a healthy atmosphere, and diseases among the natives are rare. The fruit trees are chiefly the coconut, bread-fruit, and papaw. The inhabitants also cultivate bananas, plantains, sweet potatoes, and taro. From the bark of the mulberry tree they make their garments. The wild cotton is superior to that which is cultivated in some other islands ; and the sugar-cane is abundant, large in growth, and of excellent quality. Tobacco is extensively cultivated. There are no animals except hogs and rats. Fish is abundant, and constitutes one of the most common articles of food. The inhabitants belong to the same race that peopled the Society and Sandwich islands, of which their language and bodily conformation offer undoubted proofs. Their complexion is of a dark copper ; but the women are much lighter than the men. Many of the navigators speak of their figure in terms of admiration, and consider them as perfect models of symmetry ; and Langsdorf states that the measures taken on the body of one of their chiefs, agreed exactly with those of the Apollo Belvedere. Later travellers do not confirm such statements ; and it seems that the difference between individuals is greater here than in most other countries, and that the men vary in height between four feet ten inches and six feet. They have carried the art of tattooing the body to a greater degree of perfection than any other nation ; the bodies of distinguished persons being covered all over with regular figures of a very tasteful pattern. The people are cannibals. They eat both the bodies of their enemies, who are killed in battle, and also of other persons, at the instigation of their priests, or rather sorcerers. In times of famine, women and children

are killed for food. They have chiefs, but they are without authority. Their sorcerers have acquired a great influence over them, as they believe in spirits, who punish those who transgress what has been determined by the sorcerers. They have always shown themselves very friendly towards Europeans; but the missionaries who have been among them, have not hitherto been at all successful in their labours. The prince de Joinville, son of king Louis Philippe, was admiral of the colonizing expedition which constituted the Marquesas a portion of the French dominions.

FRENCH SEIZURE OF THE SOCIETY ISLES, 1842.—After taking possession of the Marquesas, the French seem to have contemplated placing under what they style 'the external sovereignty of France,' or, in plain words, making colonies of, the whole Oriental Archipelago. In the year 1838, a quarrel with Pomare, queen of the Society group, in consequence of her dismissal from Tahiti of two French catholic missionaries, enabled the French admiral to force payment of 2000 piastres from her; and since that period the missionaries of the 'London Missionary Society,' who first converted the people to Christianity, have been in constant broils with their Romanist brethren. The matter was brought to a crisis in September, 1842. Admiral Dupetit Thouars took umbrage, in that month, at the severity of the English missionaries, in forbidding the Tahitian women from visiting the French ships, on occasion of entertainments given on board; and upon receiving a statement of grievances from the French of Otaheite, he thought proper to demand of queen Pomare, (who, it appears, not only sways her own group of isles, but exercises authority over the whole archipelago, and may therefore be regarded as sovereign of the Pacific,) an additional sum of 10,000 piastres. 'This sum (writes an officer of the French expedition) must be considered an

easy reparation for the injuries sustained by our countrymen at Otaheite and elsewhere, specie being so highly abundant in the isles:' nevertheless, her barbaric majesty did not pay the required fine, but consented to receive protection from the sovereignty of France in lieu. From the circumstance of a mere party of dissenting teachers having brought about relations between England and the Society Isles, the British government has never had its attention called to the advantages that might result from placing them and the other portions of the Oriental Archipelago under its protection. All the islands comprehended under the term 'Polynesia,' are not only most fertile, producing corn, fruits, drugs, horned cattle, sheep, pigs, poultry, and fruits, but are rich in minerals. Gold and silver are easily and abundantly found, as is also coral; while silk is a staple product. They are also very healthy regions, and moreover would afford an important opening to our commercial relations between India, China, and New South Wales, with the Mexican republic, Peru, and indeed the whole of South America. A small detachment of artillery has been left by the French on Tahiti, and a fortress has been hastily raised, 'whereon (says a very recent correspondent) I now see the tricolor flag waving.' The great detriment likely to arise to Great Britain from this Gallic appropriation, must be looked for in the French forestalment of supplies of manufactured goods to the South American republics—hitherto our own markets; but 'the great nation' has never yet been remarkable for its skill in colonization.

BRITISH COLONIZATION OF NATAL, 1842.—The superior fertility of the district of Natal, situated on the eastern coast of Africa, 500 miles north of the Cape of Good Hope, had been long known to the Dutch settlers of the latter colony, many of whom, possessed of farming knowledge (*boers*), at length emigrated

thither in the years 1824, 1836, and 1837, openly declaring their design to establish a community independent of the English colony at the Cape. As the British government at the Cape silently assented to the migration, the boers considered themselves licensed to act on their own responsibility; and since, in their subsequent contest with the Zoolùs and other native tribes, no assistance was afforded them by the English, they, when at length settled around the bay of Natal, on lands of their own marking out, declared themselves free possessors of the soil. The Cape government, however, on having its attention called to the abundant crops of corn and fruits raised annually by the boers at Natal, resolved on asserting its authority over the emigrants; and some troops were accordingly despatched to the new settlement from the Cape, under the command of captain Smith, to take formal possession of the Natal district in queen Victoria's name, in May, 1842. The boers, being determined to resist the proceeding, armed themselves even to the collection and rough forging of ordnance, and very successfully for some time opposed the small invading English force; and captain Smith, after losing many of his men, was compelled to retreat southwards, and wait for reinforcements. On receiving what he thought the requisite supply, he returned to the charge, but was again pressed hard by the boers, and compelled to fortify his little party in the nascent town of Port Natal itself, until further assistance should arrive. At length lieut.-col. Cloete reached Natal by sea from the Cape, with a competent force, in the month of July, and on the 20th succeeded in relieving captain Smith and his little party; whereon the boers threw down their arms, surrendered the prisoners they had made, and, on receiving, all but a few, the full benefit of an amnesty, assented to become subjects of the British government, retaining all their agrarian privileges.

Natal being thus constituted an colony, we will briefly describe its situation and resources. It is, we have said, 500 miles north of the Cape; and the rising town of Port Natal is on the shore of a bay more extensive than, and as beautiful as, that of Naples. The country between it and the Cape is well peopled by independent natives; the chief tribe of whom, the Zoolùs, ruled by king Dingan, are favourable to the settlement of the whites in their vicinity. Dingan has even agreed to cede 300 miles of coast to the settlers, with a breadth varying from 60 to 100 miles from the ocean to the north-west; and a range of high mountains separates this district on the north from the most populous part of the Zoolù state. The Zoolùs have been almost the exterminators of the tribe of Caffres. The combined Dutch and English at Natal are at present few in amount; but no less than 3000 natives of those tribes which have been broken down by the Zoolùs, have placed themselves under their protection, and live around them in the bay. These poor Africans, after, being driven from their native settlements, and plundered of their cattle about fifty years ago, kept constantly secreted in the depths of the forests, to avoid the spears of their Zoolù oppressors; but when the Dutch boers had appeared at Natal, and, to their astonishment, rapidly brought the lands into a beautiful state of cultivation, they offered themselves to them as servants and assistants, and have continually evinced the greatest attachment to them.

The country around the harbour of Natal is beautifully wooded, and contains extensive plains, thickly covered with luxuriant grass—so luxuriant, that it is too rich for cattle, and actually would make them *thin*, until it shall have been burned from time to time by settlers; the same occurrence happening in all countries where the herbage has not been regularly run down by feeding. The effect on animals is the same as if

the grass were either of an unhealthy nature, or actually deficient in nutritive principles. After the burning, the new and tender herbage, especially after the rains, is particularly sweet. Elephants, elands, buffaloes, and wild boars, are plentiful; but animals of prey are rare. Two crops of Indian corn, sometimes three, are reaped in the year around Natal; and the fruits are curious, rich, and most abundant. Timber of the finest quality and largest dimensions is found in great plenty; and even forests of great extent are met with. The whole country around abounds in rivers and rivulets, the waters of which could be led over thousands of acres at little expense; the very reverse of what exists at the Cape itself. The rains also are so regular as to render irrigation needless. Already have the boers exported fine wool to the Cape. Grass thrives in profusion to the very limits of the salt water: and on the 4th of June (*mid-winter*), Mr. Boshof saw, in a native's garden, under a woody hill, at a distance of fifty or sixty miles from the coast, Indian corn of luxuriant growth in *full blossom*, together with tobacco-plants, pumpkins, and calabashes—all uninfluenced by any frost. The soil is generally a rich black loam; and the vine seems the only European plant that does not actually flourish therein.

SALE OF STRAWBERRY HILL, 1842.

—Three-and-forty years after the decease of its originator, this *bijou* of a house and its curious contents were sold by public auction for somewhat below 30,000*l*. As, while on view, the main body of the nobility and gentry of the nation was attracted to the spot, the following description of a day's ramble thither will be read with more pleasure than a dry detail of articles and their prices.

• Twickenham is gained—the day is fine—already you begin to see tokens of something unusual in the little town, such as rows of flys and coaches in the street, and other equipages, full of belles and beaux, pass-

ing you, speeding on to the north entrance (close on the road) of this seat of taste and learning—this singular museum of curiosities.

‘The house itself is rough-cast, white, castellated, not so irregular in shape as might be imagined, nor is it the ‘band-box’ which affected people presume to call it. I paced the western side, and found it nearly sixty yards; the south front, on the lawn and river, about twenty. The lawn, though neglected, is still pretty, and raised above a lower field (skirting the lower road) perhaps ten feet, so that its view of the river, though indeed it is not a ‘hill,’ is pleasing; the lawn itself about 100 yards wide in front, the grounds running along to the west perhaps 500 yards, when at the extreme north-west corner next the road wall is the *bijou* of a chapel, and its rich window, and rare altar, of the twisted columns from the Santa Maria Maggiore at Rome. The windows of the house are all arched Gothic, small, and small panes; the ground-floor room, rather servants’ than the master’s; and above the first floor a suite of bed-rooms not open to the public. As you are stopped at the first landing-place on the staircase, upwards, where all the armour and arms are deposited, and some few pictures, all extremely attractive, you gain the great gallery, the Holbein room, the circular drawing-room, and square room, library, &c., by small low door-ways; short passages, and steps here and there, up and down, showing the various additions to the original house, the gallery having very deep recesses. It would require a man of taste in the curious—one of feeling and sentiment, recollecting and caring for our and other Augustan ages, a month but briefly to examine the portraits, the books, the portfolios of engravings, &c., and almost innumerable objects of art and *virtu* scattered with a rich profusion all over the house—the rooms are loaded, and the walls groan under the weight of the most exquisite portraits and works of art

by the best masters. Your seven shilling catalogue you find wholly useless for two or three hours' glance, in which, after all, the mind becomes confused and fatigued: to refer to the catalogue then is absurd, for then the chance is you do not pass beyond the staircase. No, push on; see every thing at any rate; and stop a moment only, and admire, here and there, the portraits of sir Joshua Reynolds, and those of our Henry VIII., and Edward, of the Walpole family, and the rare miniature in the glass case, and glass-cupboard gems—both properly locked—(for some impertinents are never satisfied without handling every thing!) the Cellini silver bell, the missals, and Indian silver and ivory ladle, &c. The crowd will guide you partly.

'How little we seem to advance in the fine arts—outward shapes and fashions, indeed, alter with every ten years—but where now shall we find even so fine an expression of nature and truth in the features of modern portraits, as in these from 100 to 200 or 300 years old; not to say a word of the inimitable grace, harmony, and exquisite colouring of a dozen pictures so late as Reynolds? So is it too in all the objects of sculpture and engraving. We have nothing, for instance, approaching the bell or the Tuscan cabinet casket, nor the fifty gems of the glass closet, the door of which is happily locked, to keep out worse than Gothic impertinence. I could not help observing most of the fireplaces, taken from Gothic monuments in model, still having their dog-irons or grates of a very rough and inferior manufacture, as well as the irons, shovel, tongs, and poker, the best in Pope's and Walpole's days, not now good enough for our kitchens, contrasting strangely with the beautiful forms and gilding on every chair. The rich old real Turkey carpets, still on the floors, only covering the middle—the sides all round, as in those days, for a yard or two the bare boards,—reckoning the same space

of time from the eighteenth century back, and they had Elizabeth in her palace, the boards strewed with rushes, so that, in fact, they had made greater strides to carpets, than we have since done in simply carpeting the floors more completely.

'The ample chairs everywhere draw one's attention to their great width, like a small modern sofa: this was to allow the *hooped* ladies to be seated. It is not improbable that the staircase was not, any more than it is now, carpeted; nor is it of the same elaborately rich character as other parts of the house. In the Holbein chamber there is an alcove and bed in it of slate-coloured hangings.—Is this Horace Walpole's? The tester in the French room, with an imitated coronet. The oak screen forming this alcove is finely done.

'The gilded radii, springing from the slender shafts supporting the ceiling of the gallery, are very elegant, and still remain tolerable fresh; indeed, little is hurt by age.—'tis but the thought, the fashion of the thing, that has escaped us. We may now be said to live in a broader comfort; our walls are not hidden by such hundreds of portraits, nor our recesses filled with such rare groups, models, vases, clocks, and candelabra, as must almost make any house a museum, and create a constant care, which would be any thing but consistent with ease and comfort.

'As I sauntered from room to room, it made me melancholy. Where, where is now the *genius loci*? I murmured. What sacrilege is this!—'lot 1, 2, 3, 4—300—500.' 'Lot!' has it come to this? Why, what will become of this precious gallery, these pointed arches, these frameless windows—but now rich in such lustre and association? What of the scattered things, half destroyed but by the bare act of separation? Some wholly rendered common-place and insignificant: folios of engravings: 'the smallest print: the very dining-room, so grand from its walls by the noble ancestry of the

Walpoles! Talk not to me of art, of this or that merit in the bare thing: the harmony, the beauty, the value, lies in their propinquity, and the spot. Tear them away, and each is but half itself, and poor indeed. Would that the nation had bought the whole.' The sale realized about 30,000*l*.

CHIMNEY-SWEEPING ACT.—An act of the British parliament, abolishing the use of climbing-boys in the sweeping of chimneys, and substituting machinery to effect the same object, came into operation in the metropolis and elsewhere, August, 1842.

ASSASSINATION OF MR. DRUMMOND.—As Mr. Edward Drummond, the private secretary of sir Robert Peel, the premier, was walking near Charing-cross, on the afternoon of January 20, 1843, he was shot through the back by a man who had followed him from Downing-street. The unfortunate gentleman was conveyed to his brother's bank close by, to have the wound examined, and thence to his own residence in Grosvenor-street; and though it was at first thought, from the inability to discover the ball, that the injury had only been in the outer integuments, it was at length found that the missile had passed through the cavity of the chest from behind, and lodged in front, between the cartilages of the seventh and eighth ribs, about ten inches distant from that part which is commonly called the pit of the stomach. After its extraction, Mr. Drummond gradually sank; and he died at about ten on the morning of January 25, aged 51. The assassin, when apprehended, had another loaded pistol in his hand, which he was aiming at his victim: he stated his name to be Daniel M'Naughten, and was subsequently ascertained to be a native of Glasgow, brought up to the business of a wood-turner. He was tried for his offence before lord-chief-justice Tindal in March, but acquitted (on the testimony of six medical witnesses, among whom were Drs. Munro and Morrison) on the ground of in-

sanity. Great objection was taken out of court, and even in parliament, that the trial had been prematurely brought to a conclusion by the learned judge; but it is clear, as the law now stands, that, had the court remained in session for a month, the result must have been the same, since the solicitor-general, for the prosecution, could advance no countervailing testimony to rebut the cumulative evidence afforded by the depositions of six medical witnesses. It is needless to say that the public mind was astounded on receiving intelligence of the decision of the jury and court. The assassin had declared he mistook the secretary for the premier himself; and when the appalling *fact* (and facts are stubborn things) of the wretch's mistake having caused him to deviate so little from his original intention, had been regarded as nothing in comparison of the mere *opinion* of men, however upright and wise, that he was insane—the public mind had cause, we think, for being astounded. A late talented London physician, who had passed a life in the study of insane cases (Richard Powell, M. D.), declared that seventy-five out of every hundred Englishmen showed themselves monomaniacs on occasion—when their interests, their fears, and their other common passions, violently assaulted them, and excited some one morbid train of thought in their minds. But he allowed not that men committing offences against laws divine and human, when thus urged by the bad principles of their nature, were to be regarded as irresponsible beings; nor can we think there would be security for the life of any one, high or low in the station, were such a notion to be fully recognised. The assassin M'Naughten was acquitted, because the jury did not think that, at the very moment of shooting his victim, he was conscious he was acting wrongfully, or, in common legal phrase, that he was capable at the time of distinguishing between right and wrong. But how can mortal man

know what was passing in the assassin's mind at the moment? There was sufficient previous consciousness as to right and wrong, while the plan of the assassination was devising: the wretch considers himself injured by some public functionary, tells his secret to no one, watches for days the in and outgoing of his intended victim, and at length shoots him—the only departures from the common system of murderers being in the daring openness of the deed, and in the taking the secretary for the master—the latter, as history shows, a most common mistake of the sane. Glorifying as we do in our country's readiness to make merciful equity walk hand in hand with stern justice, we are sure that to give all the power to the former must only lead to the eventual more fearful resort to the latter; and we think there has been of late shown a considerable tendency, by a large class of a certain supersensitient school, to neglect the plain direction given by a gracious God to man in His written word, in cases of manslaughter not accidental—'Who o sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed.' In the particular injunctions of the Mosaic law concerning men-slayers, there is no mention of setting up pleas, such as insanity, to prevent judgment. God alone is to be the arbiter in a case where motives cannot be fathomed by man, and that in another world. We have already had enough of a disposition to sympathise with great scoundrels, and to call those by the mild term 'unfortunate' who are in truth grossly vicious. Such false philanthropists have been willing to make the most deadly crimes the unavoidable results of physical distempers; and every breach of the decalogue has been nicely attributed and cleverly traced by them to some paroxysm of fever, or some high access of nervous excitement.

The term *monomania* was first employed by M. Esquirol, a writer on insanity, and is used to designate cases of mania, or even of hypochon-

driasis, wherein the mind of the patient is obstinately impressed with some single erroneous notion: it is derived from the Greek *monos*, 'one,' because the sufferer seems to have one sole misleading sentiment, and is, in all other notions, sane. Writers of all ages have described the monomaniac, and none more correctly than the delightful Burton in his 'Anatomy of Melancholy.' Mackenzie in his 'Man of Feeling' has given his picture, and Pope has drawn it in caricature.

The following is from Burton, whose book, being confined to scholars' libraries, is comparatively little known, certainly less known than it deserves. 'Many (monomaniacs) fear death, and yet, in a contrary humour, make way with themselves. Some are afraid that heaven will fall on their heads; some that they are condemned as to the next world, or shall be. (Such was the poet Cowper.) Fear of death, of falling into some especial disease, that they shall die themselves forthwith, or that some of their dear friends or near allies are certainly dead—seizes some; imminent danger, loss, disgrace, torments others; some think they are all glass (like the good Dr. Watts), and therefore will suffer no man to come near them, lest they should break them in pieces; some think that they are all cork, as light as feathers, and others that they are lead, and too heavy to move; some are afraid their heads will fall off their shoulders, that they have live frogs in their stomachs, &c. Montanus speaks of one that durst not walk alone from home, for fear he should swoon, or die; of another, who feared every man he met, lest he should quarrel with him, rob him, kill him. Some dare not walk alone; some dare not go over a bridge, come near a pool, rock, steep hill, or lie in a chamber where cross-beams are, lest they should be tempted to drown, precipitate, or hang themselves; and some, if they be locked in a room, are afraid of being stifled for want of

air, or, if they be in a throng, middle of a church, or multitude, where they may not easily get out, are ready to sink on the spot. Trincavellius had a patient that would needs make away with himself, for fear of being hanged for some offence which somebody might charge him with committing, although he was a man of pure life; and the same person could not be persuaded, for three years together, but that he had killed a man. Another, through bashfulness, suspicion, and timidity perhaps, will not be seen abroad, loves darkness as life, and cannot endure to sit in light-some places; he dares not come into company, for fear he should be misused, disgraced, overshoot himself in gesture or speeches, or be sick; he thinks every man observes him, aims at him, derides him, owes him malice. All these are vain thinkings that I have named, all windy, empty, groundless vanities, and so are what follows. Some are afraid that they shall have every fearful disease they see others have, hear of, or read, and dare not therefore, hear or read of any subject. If they see one possessed of an epileptic paroxysm, a man shaking with the palsy, or giddy-headed, for many days after it runs in their minds:—they are afraid they shall be so too, they are in like danger. Pacify any of them for one point of grievance, they are instantly troubled with some other fear; always afraid of something, which never peradventure was, never can be, never likely will be; troubled in mind upon every small occasion, unquiet, still complaining, grieving, vexing, suspecting, grudging, discontented. Or, if their minds be free for the present, yet their bodies are out of tune—they suspect some part or other to be amiss. Now their head aches, heart, stomach, back; they shall surely have this or that disease; still troubled in mind, body, or both, and, after all, only through flatulency of stomach and bowels, continually molested. (In another part of the work is recommended a

judicious use of the then mercurial remedies, to aid the liver, and cleanse the alimentary canal with mildness and caution—'whence a cure for all phantasies will ensue.') Yet for all this, as Jacchinius notes, the same persons are in all other things wise, staid, discreet, and do nothing unbecoming their dignity, person, or place; and they are only beside themselves in this foolish, ridiculous, and childish fear, which so much, so continually tortures their souls. Like a barking dog, that always makes a noise, but seldom bites, this fear ever molesth, and, so long as melancholy (monomania) asteth, cannot be avoided.'

Mackenzie's monomaniac is thus accurately pointed out. 'Harley (in visit to the Bedlam of that day) had fallen behind his companions, looking at a man who was making pendulums with bits of thread, and little balls of clay. He had delineated a segment of a circle on the wall with chalk, and marked their different vibrations, by intersecting it with cross lines. A decent-looking man came up, and smiling at the maniac, turned to Harley, and told him, that gentleman had once been a very celebrated mathematician. 'He fell a sacrifice,' said he, 'to the theory of comets; for having, with infinite labour, formed a table on the conjectures of sir Isaac Newton, he was disappointed in the return of one of those luminaries, and was very soon after obliged to be placed here by his friends. If you please to follow me, sir (continued the stranger), I believe I shall be able to give you a more satisfactory account of the unfortunate people you see here, than the man who attends your companions.' Harley bowed, and accepted his offer. The next person they came up to had scrawled a variety of figures on a piece of slate. Harley had the curiosity to take a nearer view of them. They consisted of different columns, on the top of which were marked, South-sea annuities, India stock, and Three per

cent. consols. 'This (said Harley's instructor) was a gentleman well known in Change-alley. He was once worth 50,000*l.*, and had actually agreed for the purchase of a large estate in the west of England, in order to realize his money; but he quarrelled with the proprietor about the repairs of a garden-wall, and so returned to town to follow his old trade of stock-jobbing a little longer; when an unlucky fluctuation of stock, in which he was engaged to an immense extent, reduced him at once to poverty and madness. Poor wretch! he told me the other day, that against the next payment of differences, he should be some hundreds above a *plum* (100,000*l.*).' 'It is a spondee, and I will maintain it!' interrupted a voice on the left. This assertion was followed by a very rapid recital of some lines of Homer. 'That figure,' continued the stranger to Harley, 'whose clothes are so bedaubed with snuff, was a schoolmaster of some reputation: he came hither to be resolved of some doubts he entertained concerning the genuine pronunciation of the Greek vowels. In his highest fits, he makes frequent mention of one Dr. Bentley. But delusive ideas, sir, (mark, the monomaniac himself speaks,) are the motives of the greatest part of mankind, and a heated imagination is the power by which their actions are incited: the world, indeed, in the eye of a philosopher, may be denominated a large madhouse.' 'It is true,' answered Harley, 'the passions of men are temporary madnesses—*ira brevis furor est*—and sometimes very fatal in their effects,

'From Macedonia's madman to the Swede.'

'It was indeed,' hastily replied the stranger, 'a very mad thing in Charles XII., to think of adding so vast a country as Russia to his dominions. That would have been fatal indeed—the balance of the North would then have been lost—but the sultan and I would never have allowed it—' 'Sir!' interrupted Harley, looking

at the stranger with no small surprise. 'Why, yes,' returned the other, 'the sultan and I—don't you know me, sir?—I am the Khan of Tartary!' Harley was a good deal struck by this discovery; he had prudence enough, however, to conceal his amazement; and, bowing as low to the monarch as his dignity required, he left him immediately, and joined his companions.'

Pope has thus made light of the monomaniac's sufferings:

'Unnumber'd throngs on ev'ry side are seen
Of bodies chang'd to various forms by spleen;
Here living tea-pots stand, one arm held out,
One bent:—the handle this, and that the
spout:

A pipkin there, like Homer's tripod, walks—
Here sighs a jar—and there a goose-pie
talks.'

But the condition of the monomaniac and hypochondriac is by no means a fit mark for the shaft of ridicule; and compassion, not railery, has hitherto been found the best mode of commencement, in attempting their cure. The point whereat monomania stops, as in the case of hypochondriacs, short of actual insanity, it is next to impossible to define. What Dr. Powell has said is in a degree substantiated, if we reflect on the vast number of authors, &c., that have been, in all ages and countries, in some degree monomaniacs. What is designated by the mild term 'eccentricity,' is only a mitigated shape of the affection. Thus Hogarth, when he had set up his coach, was in the constant habit, after calling on a friend, or anywhere on business, of forgetting that he had left the vehicle in some neighbouring street, and, if it rained on taking his departure, would borrow an umbrella, and return home or go elsewhere on foot. So Elwes the miser, as most of his class are, was a monomaniac. Although possessed of immense wealth, he would hide half-crowns behind the shutters, or in some cranny or other of the house, that he might have money at command when about to be conveyed to the poor-house. Hosts of dramatic

authors have been in the same predicament, the 'fine phrensy' of the immortal William of Stratford being, it would seem, their hereditary lot. Amongst such, Nathaniel Lee (1648—1692), who wrote the tragedy of the 'Rival Queens,' now better known by the title of 'Alexander the Great,' a singular compound of poetic excellence and furious bombast, shines conspicuous. From his careless, convivial, and at last drunken habits, he passed the Rubicon of hypochondriasis, went actually mad, and was more than once (writing tragedies in the intervals) a resident in Bedlam. George Lillo (1693—1739), author of many plays, but especially of 'George Barnwell,' was an independent in religious notions, and fond of preaching from behind the counter of his shop to his customers, interlarding his well-meaning homilies with high flown dramatic passages, occasionally to the scandal of his demure audience. On, however, he went, and was acknowledged, in his dealings, an upright person. His domestic and highly moral production, 'George Barnwell,' was, until some ten years since, annually played on the boards of one of the metropolitan theatres, to warn young men of the humble classes of the temptations that continually await them in London, and to guard them against their influence; but, in the spirit of the present day, 'Jack Sheppard,' *et istud genus omne*, which appear contrived to lead young men into evil, have been allowed to supersede that useful drama. Eccentric as was Lillo, and mad as was Lee, it is to be regretted that they did not, before their decease, bite some of their contemporaries, all deficient as they were in the heart-searching contrivance of the one, and in the glowing, though extravagant, fire of fancy of the other.

But, to return to the affliction whence, it is acknowledged, the talent of a host of writers has apparently (so little know we of ontology) arisen, hypochondriac maladies seem most to affect the north-west portion

of Europe; and the cause is probably to be found in the greater mental activity, enterprise, and exposure to all the reverses and fluctuations of fortune, which belong to the state of society in the countries included in that division. Even the imagination of the northern nations is less sensual, less corporeal, and more abstract and creative, than the same faculty in the listless people of the south. Republics, which afford to ambitious persons in private life ready means of rising, and which also expose them to be alike suddenly thrown down by the multitude of jealous competitors, are found more to abound with hypochondriacs than other kinds of state-government. Among trades, weavers and tailors are very frequently monomaniacal; but shoemakers seem, in this respect, pre-eminently wretched. The fact may be thus accounted for. Seated all day on a low seat; pressing obdurate leather and last against the epigastrium; dragging reluctant thread into hard and durable stitches; or hammering heels and toes with much monotony—the cobbler's mind, regardless of the proverb, 'ne sutor ultra crepidam,' wanders into regions metaphysical, and political, and theological; and from men so employed have sprung many founders of sects, religious reformers, gloomy politicians, bards, sophists, and other unquiet things. Clergymen, fixed in remote country livings, have wonderfully contributed to the catalogue of hypochondriacs. The active man of business, travelling with speed of horses or of steam to some great mart of traffic and gain, sighs as he passes a beautiful parsonage-house, and laments that his father had not brought him up to the church. The divine whom he envies, repines meanwhile over the seclusion of his situation, and the absence of all those stimuli to ambition which banish rest from other men. His duties are few and easy; his income may be comfortable, but is often neither good nor bad, nor likely to be augmented; he has little inducement to take

exercise, and has few, perhaps no companions of his own standard of information, with whom to exchange thoughts; yet he must eat—and imperfect digestion, restless nights, nervous mornings, and all the *et cetera* of monomaniac trains of thought ensue. Many amusing stories have been told of elderly men of business, who, retiring from trade, or other customary occupations, with a fortune, have lived to feel all the embarrassment of riches. Legal and medical men, too, have furnished numerous examples of persons who, though possessing an ample income, yet, missing their daily accumulation of fees, and finding that their expenses were not diminished, have been heartily glad to abandon all rural ambition, and, deserting the dull ranks of country gentlemen, have thrown themselves once more into the great gulf-stream of London and of business:—driven to this resolution by finding that fears of ruin begin to haunt them, that the stomach never again will be in good humour, and that leisure and dignity, although praised enough by the poets, are exceedingly uncomfortable acquisitions. The most interesting and the most melancholy hypochondriacs, however, are to be found amongst men of cultivated minds and sedentary habits, whose sufferings appear but little in the works they chance to present to the world. On persons of this kind, both the mental and bodily causes of the disorder are accumulated. Neglect of exercise is combined with frequent mental excitement, and a constitution of peculiar sensibility is exposed to all the trials incidental to men of little worldly wisdom and small possessions; where-

come pretty equally divided between mental brilliancy and moody madness. The life of such persons is little better than a long disease.

And is there then no help, no remedy, for such a condition? Surely yes. Early hours of going to rest; early rising; a careful avoidance of

great irregularities in living, which are, of all things, most surely paid for by fits of despondency; an agreeable course of reading; much exercise in the open air; cheerful society, whenever society is not more irksome than silence and retirement; a moderate pursuit of field sports; but, above all things, when it is practicable, a frequent change of residence; all these things may be looked upon as important parts of the treatment of hypochondriasis. The proper regulation of the *diet* is very material; but quantity, rather than quality, seems to demand the patient's attention. Lord Bacon's short 'Essay on the Regimen of Health' will be found, beyond all other books, the most useful to the hypochondriac. Of the importance of a proper regimen of the *mind*, too much cannot be said. A journey, a new study, frequent rides on horseback, or any thing which effects a complete diversion of the thoughts, is most expedient; and contrivances, apparently slight, are frequently rewarded with great results. The patient has, in favourable cases, sufficient power to abstract his attention, from the state of his own health, and from medical reading, if impressed with the danger of pursuing such trains of thought; and when exhorted to change his diet, or regimen, to take exercise, or make any other effort, he may truly be encouraged with the assurance, that if he 'throw but a stone, the giant dies.' Such are some of the principal circumstances worthy of observation in hypochondriasis. The chance, however, of freedom from *all* nervous complaints, including some of the most dreadful mental visitations, is increased by every rational means of increasing individual happiness, by that great blessing, a contented mind; by a calm dependence on a benevolent and all-wise Creator; by a freedom from all mean forms of ambition,—as for establishment, equipage, and restless gaiety; by a love of home duties, country scenery, and useful occupations; by a reasonable

acquaintance with some of the sciences; by a taste for the arts, and for the improving pleasures of elegant literature, and the society of the well-informed and virtuous. The divine, the philosopher, and the physician, speak the same language. The dictates of reason and of duty are sufficiently plain, and few are blind to them: they are the dictates of health, bodily and mental: but so opposed to them are the dictates of fashion, that the greater number are found ever

'To see the best, and yet the worst pursue.'

In conclusion, we must say a few words regarding what that *sine qua non* blessing of health is. The first condition of complete sanity of body is, that each organ perform its function unconsciously and unheeded: let but any viscus announce its separate existence, were it even boastfully, and for pleasure—not for pain—then already has one of those unfortunate 'false centres of sensibility' established itself—already has derangement begun. The perfection of bodily well-being is, that the collective corporal activities seem one, and be manifested moreover, not in themselves, but in the action they accomplish. If a Dr. Kitchener boast that *his* system is in high order, dietetic philosophy may indeed take credit; but the true peptician was that honest countryman, who answered 'that, for his part, he had *no* system.' In fact, unity, agreement, is always silent, or soft-voiced: it is only discord that loudly proclaims itself. So long as the several elements of life, all fitly adjusted, can pour forth their movement like harmonious-tuned strings, it is a melody and unison; life, from its mysterious fountains, flows out as in celestial music and diapason, which also, like that other 'music of the spheres,' even because it is perennial and complete, without interruption, and without imperfection, might be fabled to escape the ear. Thus, too, in several languages, is the state of firm

health well denoted by a term expressing unity; and when we feel ourselves as we wish to be, we say that we are *whole*.

Few mortals, however, it is to be feared, are permanently blest with that felicity of having *no* system; and there is no known community of human beings in any country of the world, in which the first necessity of existence, that of taking food for the nourishment of the body, is not the cause of disease and death to great numbers, and of uneasiness, nay, sometimes of intense pain, to far greater numbers. Why is this? Why is the digestive process more productive of suffering, disease, and death in man, than in the lower animals of a similar structure, in which the function, considered in a physiological point of view, is scarcely at all less complex? The correct answer to this question would include a clear account of the causes of dyspepsia, and would certainly suggest the appropriate remedies for the disease. But though most of us, arrived at a certain age, are thus unable to boast of possessing 'no system,' the majority of us, looking back on young years, may remember seasons of a light, aerial translucency, and elasticity, and perfect freedom. The body had not yet become the prison-house of the soul, but was its vehicle and implement—like a creature of the thought, and altogether pliant to the bidding. We knew not that we had limbs; we only lifted, and hurled, and leaped. Through eye and ear, and all the avenues of sense, came clear unimpeded tidings from without; while from within issued unfettered victorious force. We stood as in the centre of nature, giving and receiving, in harmony with it all. In those days, health and sickness were foreign traditions that did not concern us; our whole being was as yet *one*, the whole man like an incorporated will. Such, were rest, or ever-successful labour the human lot, might our life continue to be: a pure, perpetual, unregarded music—a beam of perfect

white light, rendering all things visible, but itself unseen, even because it was of that perfect whiteness, and no irregular obstruction had yet broken it into colours. The beginning of inquiry is disease: all science, if we consider well, as it must have originated in the feeling of something being wrong or wanting, so it is, and continues to be, but division, dismemberment, and partial healing of the wrong. Thus, as was of old written, the tree of knowledge springs from a root of evil, and bears fruit both good and ill; and certainly, had Adam remained in Eden, there had been no anatomy, and no metaphysics.

EARTHQUAKE IN THE WEST INDIES.—A most destructive earthquake visited the islands of that portion of the West Indies, called the Caribbee or Windward isles, on the 8th of February, 1843; but its effects were most ruinous in Antigua. ‘Melancholy and disastrous (writes Mr. Clark, the surgeon of the ship *Actæon*) as the consequences have been to the other islands, yet they are but as dust in the balance, when compared with the ravages it has inflicted upon this. We left Barbadoes on the 31st of January the admiral, sir C. Adam, being there with several men-of-war on his annual tour of inspection), to proceed to St. Thomas’s for the purpose of taking in coals, provisions, &c., for the voyage home. Here we arrived on the 3d of February, and remained till the 8th, without any thing having transpired till that morning, about half-past ten o’clock; when all of a sudden the inhabitants were thrown into a state of the utmost consternation and alarm, by a violent trembling and shaking of the earth, and every thing upon it. I happened to be on shore at the time; and, seeing the people suddenly rush in crowds from their houses into the streets, with terror and dismay pictured in their countenances, I inquired of a gentleman what was the matter, when he replied, ‘Oh! sir, it’s an

earthquake; don’t you feel it?’ I had indeed felt the ground tremble and quiver underneath me; but, never having felt an earthquake before, concluded it was produced by some heavily-laden waggon or other passing through the streets; the sensation appearing to me somewhat similar to that which I had frequently experienced in London from this cause. I was, however, soon undeceived, for the houses began to shake, doors and window-shutters to swing upon their hinges, pots, pans, and tins suspended from the ceiling of the shops and stores, to play tunes upon each other, bottles to be flung off the shelves, and glasses to dance and jingle on the sideboards. All this occurred in about two minutes, and fortunately passed off in this place without doing much damage to property. The people, however, were dreadfully alarmed. Reports having now reached St. Thomas’s, which led to the inference that the leeward islands had suffered severely, it was deemed advisable that we should proceed thither, and convey home intelligence of the event, in order that the people of England might be apprised of the correct circumstances of the case as soon as possible, the regular packet, the *Forth*, having already sailed with the mails. We accordingly left St. Thomas’s on Saturday, the 11th inst., and arrived at St. Kitts, next day. In passing the small Dutch islands of Saba and St. Eustatius, we endeavoured to ascertain with our telescopes if they had sustained much damage; we were, however, too distant to recognise objects with certainty; but we understood afterwards, that St. Eustatius had suffered pretty severely. On landing at the town of Basseterre, in St. Kitts, we found that the earthquake here had produced the most disastrous results; lives lost, fallen houses, tottering walls, furniture destroyed, &c. There was no doubt here about the time of the shock’s occurrence, as the clocks all stopped at half-past ten o’clock

a.m. The following are the chief casualties, as far as I could learn at the time :—Three women were washing clothes in a stream, surrounded on either side by a high ridge of rocks ; the rocks were split asunder, and, tumbling down upon them, crushed them almost to pieces. Two died soon after, and the third was scarcely expected to survive. The walls of the church were so cracked, particularly in the north and south aisles, that it is dangerous to approach them ; and some of the monuments on the walls are broken, and the gail so shattered that the prisoners had to be removed. The female Benevolent Institution much damaged ; the gable of the reading-room fallen out, and the building otherwise so much injured that it must be rebuilt. The stores of Messrs. Matthews entirely destroyed ; a horse killed by the falling in of a large building ; bedrooms and furniture of the Misses Archibald demolished by the walls falling in. Indeed, there is scarcely a stone or brick building but has sustained more or less damage. The sugar-works of Mr. Peter M. Mills are said to have been totally demolished, those of Mr. Daniel Matthews greatly damaged. The dwelling-house, boiling-house, &c., of Bevan Island estate, situate on a cliff overhanging a ravine, have been fairly pitched into the ravine and shattered to atoms. The barracks on Brimstone-hill had also sustained a great deal of injury, particularly Fort George, which it was thought would have to be rebuilt ; and a slip had taken place from the top, which, rolling down the side, had so deprived it of verdure, that it looked to us like a beaten road. At Sandy-point, on an estate called Little Sir Gillis's, an orifice had been opened in the earth, out of which sprang fumes of sulphurous vapour for some time after. From St. Kitts we proceeded to Nevis ; and here again a scene of ruin and destruction met our view. We learned that the shock had been felt at the same minute as in St. Kitts and St.

Thomas's, and that the clocks had stopped at the same time. The force of the shock here seemed to have been expended in a direction from south-west to north-east, and was supposed to have destroyed property to the amount of from 40,000*l.* to 50,000*l.* sterling, but fortunately no lives were lost. The first part which we visited was the bath-house of Miss Huggins. The building itself is an immense pile of the strongest description, erected upon the face of a rising ground, and formed of walls above two feet thick, built with square blocks of cut stone ; yet such was the tremendous force of the disturbing cause, that these walls, especially in the south-west wing, are split and cracked in various places, key-stones dropping from the arches, and some of the blocks of stone actually riven in two. The greater part of the Court-house is a mass of rubbish, but a small portion is still standing. The dwelling-house, mill, and sugar-works of the hon. Josiah W. Maynard utterly destroyed. The sugar-works of Mr. Cottle very much damaged. We now arrived at Antigua, where, as we said at the outset, the visitation has been felt to the utmost extreme. Antigua, indeed, may be said to have received a shock which will paralyze it for years to come. It was felt at about the same time as in the other islands, and is reported to have been of the most terrific nature. The earth heaved and undulated like the waves of the sea ; rocks were riven in pieces ; the top of Monk's-hill and some others came tumbling down their sides, stripping them of their verdure, and leaving behind a track barren as a road ; houses and buildings of every kind were rocked to and fro like cradles ; and men reeled and staggered in the streets and fields, as if intoxicated, or standing upon the deck of a rolling vessel. The scene in the town of St. John's baffles all description : houses levelled with the ground, clouds of dust ascending from them and thickening the atmosphere,

the crash of falling walls, the breaking of glass and crockery, the smashing of floors and furniture of all kinds, men, women, and children, rushing from their houses screaming and shrieking, and the groans of the dying commingled with the low rumbling noise of the earthquake itself, altogether presented a scene of horror and alarm, which language fails to pourtray, and the mind almost shudders to contemplate. Five minutes before, and the sun poured down his fervid flood of light on a scene of quiet industry and placid beauty; now he shone on one of wreck and ruin, devastation and death. No wonder that people in general, even after all danger had passed over, were so bewildered and stupified, that they were for a short time almost bereaved of their senses; whilst those whose houses had been destroyed, and the mangled bodies of whose friends lay smothered beneath them, though internally thanking Heaven for their own preservation, yet wandered about in an agonising and mournful state of distraction, not knowing how to assuage their grief, or where to hide their heads. It was preceded by a rise of the tide of about four feet, and lasted about two or three minutes. It is almost needless to particularise where every thing is either injured or destroyed; but some may be specially interested, and for their benefit I will state such details as I have been able to collect.—First, then, eight lives have unfortunately been lost, but their names I could not ascertain. There is scarcely a mill left standing in the whole island; nor a set of sugar-works but is either destroyed or so damaged that they are rendered useless for the present. Every church and chapel either laid prostrate or so damaged that it is dangerous to approach or enter them, except the Moravian chapel, which was a wooden one; and on the Sunday succeeding, the archdeacon had to perform Divine Service in a tent pitched in front of Government House. The old and fine cathedral, which had stood the

brunt of time for 150 years, has had the roof so twisted upon the walls, and is otherwise so injured, that it threatens to fall. The Methodist chapel, recently built, which cost 8000*l.* sterling, and was adapted to contain 2500 people, is rent in pieces. The tower, court-house, public arsenal, police-office, lunatic asylum, gaol, barracks, custom-house, and, indeed, every public building in the island, except, I believe, Government House, have sustained serious damage. In fact, it may be summed up by stating, that every house or building composed of mason-work has suffered more or less, whilst those of wood have received little or no injury. The houses in St. John's have been so generally dilapidated, that numbers of the inhabitants are obliged to resort to the shipping for a temporary abode. Several spirit merchants are said to have lost property to the amount of 3000*l.* sterling; and I heard of a number of individuals who had lost large quantities of wine, by the bottles being broken in their cellars. Some cases are peculiarly distressing. A Mr. Athill, whose stores, &c., had been burnt down by fire in 1841, had employed an architect from Scotland, I believe, to rebuild them with great care, and to make them fire-proof; and for this purpose had imported bricks, iron doors, window-sashes, &c., from England. They had just been finished and completed; but his care and anxiety, his labour and expense, have been employed in vain, for they are now levelled with the dust. At English Harbour the damage done is immense. The ground on the St. Helena side has sunk down in several places on a level with the water, and the powerful timber piles and wharf-fenders have been burst out and broken; the gable of a store on this side has also fallen down. In the dock-yard the ground is rent and fissured in various places, and the masonwork with which it was faced and built in, has fallen asunder into the water. The officers' quarters

have been cracked in different places, and the large tank underneath, capable of containing 1000 tons of water, rent in twain, and the water allowed to escape. The copper and timber stores are damaged; capstan-house ready to fall in pieces, the immense stone pillars supporting the large wooden sail-loft shivered in all directions. In fine, almost every building, more or less, damaged. A man belonging to the dockyard stated to me, that 'no hammock could swing more furiously than the houses did here' during the shock, and that in attempting to run out of the dockyard gate to where his family was, he was so frightened and bewildered by the rolling of the precipice on one side of the road and a line of buildings on the other, that he had not courage to proceed, but dropped upon his knees on the road to implore the protection of Heaven upon himself and his family. The barracks upon Shirley Heights are so much injured, that the soldiers have been obliged to evacuate them and encamp in tents upon the hill side. At Dows-hill House, above English Harbour, where sir C. Fitzroy, the governor, and his family were residing at the time, the walls are cracked and rent in different parts, and immense stones came tumbling from them, falling through the floors inside, and smashing glass, china, and furniture of all kinds, to the value of above 1000*l*. sterling. I am gratified, however, to be able to state, that neither sir Charles, lady Mary, nor any of the family, sustained any personal injury; and that he is now employed at St. John's along with the council, in framing and devising such measures for the relief of the sufferers as time and circumstances will admit of.

Not long after this convulsion in the West Indies, some symptoms were exhibited in our own country of minor subterranean shakes. The Isle of Man and Ireland were also sensible, simultaneously with parts of Lancashire and Yorkshire, of some

disturbance, on Friday, March 17th, 1843; and as these awful visitations are happily rare in England, and providentially slight as to their injurious effects, we may be pardoned if we give the substance of the narrative of the worthy head constable of Liverpool, Mr. Whitty, of what occurred in his town on the occasion in question. That gentleman was in the parlour of his house, taking coffee, at five minutes before one o'clock, when he suddenly heard and felt a violent agitation of the whole house, and of the floor in the room in which he was sitting. Being accustomed to hear loud explosions from the works in Albert dock, now being excavated, which is at no great distance, he was not much surprised at the noise; but at the same time he observed to Mrs Whitty that he thought the excavators had purposely caused the explosion to take place underneath his windows. In less than a minute afterwards another shock followed, more violent than the first; the house shook from top to bottom; and a violent rumbling noise was heard under the house, just as if a dozen railway trains had been running through a tunnel underneath. The shock and the noise were so loud and so violent, as to awaken all the family, who had retired; and as if by consent, they assembled on the stairs in a state of great alarm. Having quieted them, Mr. Whitty went into the street; and the policeman on duty at George's Dock-bridge told him that he was leaning against one of the pillars there, when suddenly he thought he heard a carriage run rapidly across the bridge, and the ground rumbling and shaking all around him. This officer perceived two shocks. The policeman on duty at the north end of Canning-dock was next questioned by Mr. Whitty; and he stated that he first observed some casks, which were lying on the quay, move as if they were alive. After this, the house was examined, and it was found that the windows on the second floor (French) had been forced open by the shock, and some furni-

ture had received a trifling displacement; but no damage was done, and the alarm soon subsided. Mr. Whitty added that the shock appeared to him to proceed from east to west, and that nothing could be more distinctly perceptible. The first shock lasted from three to five seconds, and the second from seven to ten seconds; and at first it appeared as if the tower of a church, at some distance, had fallen down at one crash. Not the least remarkable circumstance was the agitation of the horses in the stables throughout the town, particularly in the south division. The shock extended to the Che-hire side of the river Mersey, and was felt more severely there than in Liverpool; the inhabitants of New Brighton, Egremont, Leacombe, Woodside, and Birkenhead, were much alarmed by it; and its effects were strongly felt in Manchester, Wigan, Preston, and their immediate neighbourhood.

CORRUPTION OF ENGLISH LITERARY TASTE.—Pierce Egan, by his '*Life in London*,' may be considered the founder of *slang writing*, some twenty years ago; and to the police-reports of newspapers the public is indebted for the rapid spread of a taste for such a degradation of the vernacular tongue. Notwithstanding the acknowledged talents of the author of '*Nickleby*,' &c, we cannot thank them for their attempt to implant the art in question among the polite world. Neither could any person of common sense applaud the practice which obtains with another class of authors, of throwing a lustre upon characters only remarkable in their time for the mischief they occasioned, and to whom they have been anxious to give a niche in the temple of heroes. It is a highly mischievous use of ability to throw a specious colouring around the lives and actions of great scoundrels. There is a wide difference between, on the one hand, setting the world right regarding people whose fame has been all along blackened through the party-

spirit of our own or a former age, and, on the other, omitting mention of the crimes of acknowledged villains, for the sake of lauding some virtues which they might have possessed in common with their species. No one, be he ever so wicked, is all vice. It is the historian's duty to scrape away the corrosion which such party-spirit has unjustly caused to accumulate about a Nero, an Alexander, and perhaps our own John and Richard III.; but all must be ready to admit that Rienzi, Eugene Aram, Jack Sheppard, and *istud genus omne*, richly deserved the fate which they found. We have had enough both of slang, and of attempts to wash the blackamoor white, to the infection of the taste of the public, as much as of the morals of youth; and we desire once more to have noble characters alone as models for our contemplation and our imitation. Let us have done with those 'youths' in a cut with the air of a lord; whose spirited conduct in a bad cause will excite the envy of many a bumpkin in the crowd, and lead him to indulge the hope of emulating his actions, while he avoids his fate. Let us have merriment, ay and fun, to blunt the thorns of the path we have all to tread; but let us discard the execrable low wit of the coach-box, the stable, and the pot-house, that, through the medium of recent books, obtrude itself even into our drawing-rooms, to the pollution of purity and innocence. 'Tell it right and left,' was even the recent written language of a female about the court; and that when she was wounded by the shaft of calumny, and expressing her anguish in all the bitterness of undeserved woe—an occasion on which the heart speaks according to its wont, in its most natural and accustomed manner; so completely has the educated portion of the nation been inoculated by the virus. The fine arts, too, have 'pandered to the same vulgar taste; and we do not envy those who can derive pleasure from the contemplation of the human

face, distorted by the most unnatural grimace out of all that is 'divine,' as represented in the miscalled 'embellishments' of the works in question.

A minor, but a growing evil in literature, has been the tendency to publish *all* the productions, good and bad, whether intended for the press or not, of any favourite author. Thus, in new editions of Scott's or Cowper's works, we have the *successes* of those writers' studies published as costly addenda to their approved pieces; merely to make another volume, and wholly forgetful of the adage, 'Aliquando dormitat Homerus.' And lastly, the descanting on unimportant literary points is being revived; as if books were as scarce, and readers as few, as in the sixteenth century. Take for instance Mr. Collier's speculations concerning the chronology of Shakspeare's plays:—'*Twelfth Night*.' Tyrwhitt was of opinion that this comedy was not written until 1614, and Malone for some years thought so too; but he afterwards entirely altered his mind, and came to the conclusion, for various reasons which he assigns at large, that '*Twelfth Night*' was written in 1607. What is the fact? That at whatever period it came from the pen of Shakspeare, it was certainly acted at the Middle Temple Feast on the 2d of February, 1602. This is indisputable. Verily, this is like the naturalist counting the caterpillars on a cabbage-stalk, to record the unimportant amount in his diary! It is also a sheer waste of precious time, which is given us for far higher purposes than such silly inquiries; a waste which the immortal bard of Avon would have been the first to satirize and condemn.

THE QUEEN'S LAND FORCES consist of 27 regiments of cavalry, 102 regiments of foot, and a rifle brigade: total 130 regiments, horse and foot. CAVALRY. Life-guards, 2; Horse-guards, 1; Dragoon-guards, 7; Dragoons, 17: total 27. FOOT. Guards, 3; Infantry, 99; Rifle-brigade, 1:

total 103. The distinctive titles and places of service of the respective regiments are as follows:

CAVALRY. *Life-guards*, 1st, and 2nd, Peninsula war, and Waterloo. *Horse-guards*, 'Royal,' Peninsula and Waterloo. *Dragoon-guards*, 1st, 'King's,' Waterloo; 2nd, 'Queen's'; 3rd, 'Prince of Wales's,' Peninsula; 4th, 'Royal Irish,' Peninsula; 5th, 'Princess Charlotte of Wales's,' Peninsula; 6th, Carabineers; 7th, 'Princess Royal's.' *Dragoons*. 1st, 'Royal,' Peninsula, Waterloo; 2nd, 'Royal North Britons, or Scots Greys,' Waterloo; 3rd, 'King's Own light dragoons,' Peninsula; 4th, 'Queen's Own light dragoons,' Peninsula, Ghuzni; 6th, 'Enniskilling,' Waterloo; 7th, 'Queen's Own Hussars,' Peninsula, Waterloo; 8th, 'King's Royal Irish,' hussars, Hindustan; 9th, 'Queen's Regiment,' lancers, Peninsula; 10th, 'Prince of Wales's Own,' hussars, Peninsula, Waterloo; 11th, 'Prince Albert's Own,' hussars, Egypt, Salamauca, Waterloo, Bhurtpore; 12th, 'Prince of Wales's Royal,' lancers, Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo; 13th, light dragoons, Peninsula, Waterloo; 14th, 'King's,' light dragoons, Peninsula; 15th, 'King's,' hussars, Emsdorf, Sahagun, Vittoria, Waterloo; 16th, 'Queen's,' lancers, Peninsula, Waterloo, Bhurtpore, Ghuzni; 17th, light dragoons, lancers.

FOOT. *Guards*. 1st, 'Grenadiers,' (duke of Wellington, colonel), Corunna, Peninsula, Waterloo; 2nd, 'Coldstream,' Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo; 3rd, 'Scots Fusileers,' Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo. *Infantry*. 1st, 'Royal Scots,' Egypt, Corunna, Peninsula, Niagara, Waterloo, Nagpore, Ava; 2d, 'Queen's Royal,' Vimiera, Corunna, Peninsula, Ghuzni, Kelat; 3d, 'East Kent, or the Buffs,' Peninsula; 4th, 'King's Own,' Corunna, Peninsula, Waterloo; 5th, 'Northumberland Fusileers,' Peninsula; 6th, 'Royal 1st Warwickshire,' Peninsula, Niagara; 7th, 'Royal Fusileers,' Peninsula; 8th, 'The King's,' Egypt, Martinique, Niagara; 9th, 'East Norfolk,' Peninsula; 10th, 'North

Lincoln,' Egypt, Peninsula; 11th, 'North Devon,' Peninsula; 12th, 'East Suffolk,' Minden, Gibraltar, Seringapatam; 13th, '1st Somerset,' light infantry, Egypt, Martinique, Ava, Ghuzni; 14th, 'Buckinghamshire,' Tournay, Corunna, Java, Waterloo, Bhurtpore; 15th, 'York, East Riding,' Martinique, Guadaloupe; 16th, 'Bedfordshire,' Blenheim, Oudenarde, Malplaquet, Dettingen; 17th, 'Leicestershire,' Hindustan, Ghuzni, Khelat; 18th, 'Royal Irish,' Egypt, China; 19th, '1st York, North Riding'; 20th, 'East Devonshire,' Minden, Egypt, Maida, Corunna, Peninsula; 21st, 'Royal North British Fusileers'; 22d, 'Cheshire'; 23d, 'Royal Welsh Fusileers,' Egypt, Corunna, Peninsula, Waterloo; 24th, '2d Warwickshire,' Egypt, Cape of Good Hope, Peninsula; 25th, 'The King's Own, Borderers,' Minden, Egypt, Martinique; 26th, 'Cameronian,' Egypt, Corunna, China; 27th, 'Inniskilling,' St. Lucia, Egypt, Maida, Peninsula, Waterloo; 28th, 'North Gloucestershire,' Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo; 29th, 'Worcestershire,' Peninsula; 30th, 'Cambridgeshire,' Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo; 31st, 'Huntingdonshire,' Peninsula; 32d, 'Cornwall,' Peninsula, Waterloo; 33d, '1st York, West Riding,' Seringapatam, Waterloo; 34th, 'Cumberland,' Peninsula; 35th, 'Royal Sussex,' Maida; 36th, 'Herefordshire,' Hindustan, Peninsula; 37th, 'Northamptonshire,' Minden, Tournay, Peninsula; 38th, '1st Staffordshire,' Peninsula, Ava; 39th, 'Dorsetshire,' Plassey, Gibraltar, Peninsula; 40th, '2d Somersetshire,' Egypt, Monte Video, Peninsula, Waterloo; 41st, 'Welsh,' Detroit, Queenstown, Miami, Niagara, Ava; 42d, 'Royal Highland,' Egypt, Corunna, Peninsula, Waterloo; 43d, 'Monmouthshire Light Infantry,' Peninsula; 44th, 'East Essex,' Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo, Ava; 45th, 'Nottingham,' Peninsula, Ava; 46th, 'South Devon,' Dominica; 47th, 'Lancashire,' Peninsula, Ava; 48th, 'Northampton,' Peninsula; 49th,

'Princess Charlotte of Wales's, or Hertfordshire,' Copenhagen, Queenstown, China; 50th, 'The Queen's Own,' Egypt, Peninsula; 51st, '2d York, West Riding, or King's Own Light Infantry,' Minden, Corunna, Peninsula, Waterloo; 52d, 'Oxfordshire Light Infantry,' Hindustan, Corunna, Peninsula, Waterloo; 53d, 'Shropshire,' Tournay, St. Lucia, Peninsula; 54th, 'West Norfolk,' Egypt, Ava; 55th, 'Westmoreland'; 56th, 'West Essex,' Moro, Gibraltar; 57th, 'West Middlesex,' Peninsula; 58th, 'Rutlandshire,' Gibraltar, Egypt, Maida, Peninsula; 59th, '2d Nottingham,' Cape of Good Hope, Corunna, Java, Peninsula, Bhurtpore; 60th, 'The King's Royal Rifle Corps,' Peninsula; 61st, 'South Gloucestershire,' Egypt, Maida, Peninsula; 62d, 'Wiltshire,' Peninsula; 63d, 'West Suffolk,' Egmont-op-Zee, Martinique, Guadaloupe; 64th, '2d Staffordshire,' St. Lucia, Surinam; 65th, '2d North Riding,' India, Arabia; 66th, 'Berkshire,' Peninsula; 67th, 'South Hants,' Peninsula, India; 68th, 'Durham Light Infantry,' Peninsula; 69th, 'South Lincolnshire,' Java, Bourbon, Waterloo, India; 70th, 'Surrey'; 71st, 'Highland Light Infantry,' Hindustan, Cape of Good Hope, Corunna, Peninsula, Waterloo; 72d, 'Duke of Albany's Own Highlanders,' Hindustan, Cape of Good Hope; 73d, (not named), Seringapatam, Waterloo; 74th, (not named) Seringapatam, Assaye, Peninsula; 75th, (not named) Seringapatam; 76th, (not named), Hindustan, Peninsula; 77th, 'East Middlesex,' Seringapatam, Peninsula; 78th, 'Highland Ross-shire Buffs,' Assaye, Maida, Java; 79th, 'Cameron Highlanders,' Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo; 80th, 'Stafford Volunteers,' Egypt; 81st, 'Royal Leicestershire Volunteers,' Maida, Corunna, Peninsula; 82d, 'Prince of Wales's Volunteers,' Peninsula, Niagara; 83d, (not named) Cape of Good Hope, Peninsula; 84th, 'York and Lancaster,' Peninsula, India; 85th, 'Buck's Volunteers, or The King's Light Infantry,'

Peninsula, Bladensburg; 86th, 'Royal County Down,' Egypt, Bourbon, India; 87th, 'Royal Irish Fusiliers,' Monte Video, Peninsula, Ava; 88th, 'Connaught Rangers,' Egypt, Peninsula, Malta; 89th, (not named) Egypt, Java, Niagara, Ava; 90th, 'Perthshire Volunteers,' (light infantry) Egypt, Martinique, Guadeloupe; 91st, 'Argylshire,' Peninsula; 92d, 'Highland,' Egmont-op-Zee, Egypt, Peninsula, Waterloo; 93d,

'Highland,' Cape of Good Hope; 94th, (not named); 95th, 'Derbyshire;' 96th, (not named); 97th, 'Earl of Ulster's;' 98th, (not named); 99th, 'Lanarkshire,' *Rifle Brigade*, Copenhagen, Monte Video, Peninsula, Waterloo. The queen has in the West Indies three regiments of foot, raised and entirely serving therein; at Ceylon there is, in like manner, a Rifle Regiment; at the Cape of Good Hope, a regiment of Mounted Riflemen; at Malta, a Fencible Regiment; and in Newfoundland, a Veteran Company. The East India army is wholly in the pay and under the management of the East India Company.

Numbering the divisions is an excellent key to the services of each; and thus a regiment never dies. Its ranks may be thinned in action, its strength may be reduced by climate; but its services will ever be remembered with its number. How pleasing is it for instance to reflect on the hosts that went through the splendid Peninsular war, and aided in the glorious struggle at Waterloo; to see how these have served their country in the East, and those in the far West, one regiment, the 16th, having distinguished itself even under Marlborough at Blenheim and Oudenarde, and at Dettingen under their king himself.

PRONUNCIATION OF ORIENTAL NAMES.—The vowels alone need be attended to, and they are pronounced as those of the Italian language. Thus the English vowels take for their corresponding Eastern sounds, *a*, as *a* in the English word *far*; *e*, as

e in *set*; *i*, as *i* in *pit*; *j*, (for *j* is a vowel in Italian and in all Oriental tongues), as double *e* in *fee*; *o*, as *o* in *robe*; *u*, as double *o* in *poor*. Thus *Kaobul* is properly sounded *Kobool*; *Shùjah* as *Shouyah*, the double *e* of the *j* having the sound of *y* when preceding a vowel; the *Punjaub* as *Poonjah*; *Hindustan* as *Hindoostan*; *Maharajah* as *Marharahyah*, and so on.

BRITISH MEMORANDA.—*The British Population*, by the census of 1841, amounted to 27,000,000, being an increase of 3,000,000 since that of 1831. England, 15,500,000; Scotland, 2,500,000; Wales, 1,000,000; Ireland, 8,000,000—total, 27,000,000. The population of the various British colonies is no less than 101,000,000; making a total of 128,000,000 under the sway of queen Victoria, out of the 1950,000,000 of human beings on the whole earth. *The Cultivated Land* of England is 26,000,000 acres; Scotland, 6,000,000; Wales, 3,000,000; Ireland, 13,000,000—total, 48,000,000 acres. *The Annual Taxes* are raised, in England and Wales, 42,000,000*l.*; in Scotland, 5,000,000*l.*; in Ireland, 5,000,000*l.*—total, 52,000,000*l.* sterling, or 1,000,000*l.* per week. *The Standing Army* of the united kingdom is 85,000 men. *The Navy* of the united kingdom, in time of peace, is only twelve ships of the line, and twenty-four of all sizes (frigates, sloops, &c.); but in time of war, there are 150 of the line, and 1000 of all sizes. *The Merchant Ships* of the united kingdom amount to 25,000, of 3,000,000 tons' burthen, and they are navigated by 170,000 men and boys. *The National Debt* (the great cause of the height of taxation) is 780,000,000*l.*; so that 28,500,000*l.* go annually from the taxes, to defray its interest, and other charges. *The National Commerce* is, Exports, valued at 40,000,000*l.* sterling; Re-exports, 10,000,000*l.*; Imports, 48,000,000*l.* sterling. *The National Currency* is 30,000,000*l.* in gold and silver coin; and 35,000,000*l.* in bank and bankers' notes. *Relieved Poor*, in England and Wales, as stated

by sir James Graham in the house of commons, 1,872,000 persons, exclusive of those who receive relief under local acts. *The National Wealth* may be fairly estimated at 3000,000,000/; taking that sum as the existing property accumulated by the labours of the population of the British empire. The annual income of the country is in the same manner fairly estimated at 500,000,000/. *The Coal Trade* of Newcastle employs 1327 vessels, and 13,548 seamen; forming thus a complete nursery for the navy. *Extent of the British Dominions.* In honour of the birth of the prince of Wales, 1841, salutes were fired along the shores of Hudson's Bay, along the line of the Canadian lakes, in New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, at Cape Breton, and in Nova Scotia and Newfoundland; in the distant Falkland Islands, in the forests of Guiana, of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice; in Jamaica, Trinidad, Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, Barbados, St. Lucia, Dominica, St. Kitt's, Montserrat, Antigua, Barbuda, Nevis, Anguilla, Tortola, New Providence, the Bahamas, and the Bermudas; at the Cape of Good Hope, the Mauritius, St. Helena, Ascension, Sierra Leone, the Gambia, Cape Coast Castle, Accra, Dix Cove, Annamaboe, Fernando Po, and Aden; in New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, Swan River, South Australia, Norfolk Island, New Zealand; throughout the presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, at Agra, in Ceylon, Penang, Wellesley Province, Malacca, Singapore, Assam, Arracan, Mergui, and Tenasserim; at Gibraltar, Malta, Corfu, Cefalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo, Paxo, and Heligoland:—all British possessions, and containing a total of 101,000,000 of inhabitants—subjects of queen Victoria. At Hong-Kong, Telusan, and other conquered states in China—nay, even in the then beleaguered fortresses of the British in Kaubul—Ghuzni, Kandahar, Khelati-Ghilzi, and Jellalabad, guns were fired to celebrate the same auspicious

event. *English Agriculture and Horticulture.* The high character of cattle and sheep and swine breeding in England, has been evinced by the excellent quality of the meat, without any especial advance of price, generally high as the prices have for years been. The effects of a careful growth of vegetables are truly surprising. Turnips of a size equal to that of the largest white cabbage; carrots, red, yellow, white, as thick as a man's leg; brocoli, having the appearance of a full-grown cauliflower; the cos-lettuce, far surpassing in size, beauty, and nutriment, that of the place whence it came, the isle of Cos in the Archipelago; and all of the most excellent quality. Horticulture every year presents a rapid and most interesting advancement; while the stock-fruits of the kingdom, the apples, pears, &c., are improvements upon those durable and useful sorts, which were alone cultivated by our wise forefathers, before the introduction of the watery transatlantic specimens. *The English Nobility and Gentry.* Throughout Europe, nothing can compete, in splendour, or elegance, with the details of such English mansions as Burghley, Belvoir, Chatsworth, Cottesmore, Raby Castle, Alnwick, Grunthorpe, Eaton, Wentworth, Beaudesert, Gornhambury, Panshanger, Knowsley, Welbeck, Strathfieldsaye, Warwick Castle. A foreigner, on arriving during the Christmas holidays at Hatfield, or the Deepdene, Belvoir, or Burghley, finds himself at once surrounded by all the comfort and refinement of the metropolis, united with the frank and cordial hospitality of the country. The mansion itself is filled to overflowing with a circle of well-assorted guests; and the union of these suffices to form an audience for the private theatre, or the concert. Music is there heard in perfection; character and *tableaux* are enacted with a degree of finesse, scarcely to be expected out of France, and that with a great deal more of simple elegance, among the younger

branches of the assembled party ; while an occasional 'set ball' mingles the belles of the town with the unsunned beauties of the country, to their mutual advantage. *The English and Irish Sees.* Translation, or the removal of a bishop from one see to another, has been (save in cases of particular necessity) abolished by a recent enactment ; and the annual income of the respective sees is as follows. England and Wales united, has two archbishoprics, and twenty-four bishoprics ; Ireland has two archbishoprics, and twelve bishoprics ; but we cannot here also register, as respectable in amount of income, the Episcopal Church of Scotland, whose two ancient archbishoprics of Glasgow and St. Andrew's, and twelve bishoprics, are now represented by an ill-requited primacy of Aberdeen, and six equally ill-supported subordinate prelacies. The two archiepiscopal sees of England are, Canterbury, including twenty of the twenty-four English sees, and having in its patronage 149 church-livings, with an annual income to the archbishop of 17,000*l.* ; and York, including the four other sees, and that of Man, having in its gift sixty-two livings, with an annual income of 10,000*l.* The twenty-four English bishoprics are, 1. London, ninety livings, annual income of the bishop, 11,700*l.* ; 2. Durham, forty-seven livings, 8000*l.* ; 3. Winchester, sixty-three livings, 10,500*l.* ; 4. Salisbury, thirty-six livings, 5000*l.* ; 5. Norwich, forty-seven livings, 4465*l.* ; 6. Ely, seventy-six livings, 5500*l.* ; 7. Bath and Wells, eighty livings, 5000*l.* ; 8. Lichfield and Coventry, twenty-two livings, 4500*l.* ; 9. Peterborough, seven livings, 4500*l.* ; 10. Lincoln, fifty-nine livings, 4000*l.* ; 11. St. Asaph, 113 livings, 5300*l.* ; 12. Bangor, ninety-four livings, 4000*l.* ; 13. Worcester, seventy livings, 6500*l.* ; 14. St. David's, ninety-nine livings, 2500*l.* ; 15. Carlisle, forty-five livings, 3000*l.* ; 16. Rochester, twenty-two livings, 1459*l.* ; 17. Llandaff, six livings, 1000*l.* ; 18. Chester, forty-

seven livings, 3250*l.* ; 19. Oxford, eleven livings, 2400*l.* ; 20. Gloucester and Bristol (the two sees being united, 1836), thirty-two livings, 3700*l.* ; 21. Exeter, forty-two livings, 2700*l.* ; 22. Chichester, seventy livings, 4200*l.* ; 23. Hereford, twenty-five livings, 4200*l.* ; 24. Ripon (erected 1836, on the junction of Bristol and Gloucester), annual income, 4500*l.* Added to these, and making a twenty-fifth see, is Sodor and Man consisting of the isle of Man, the annual return to the bishop being 2000*l.* That prelate has a seat in the house of lords, but not being acknowledged a lord of parliament, he has no vote. The sees of Asaph and St. Bangor are to be united on the next vacancy in either ; and this fresh abstraction of one see from the twenty-four is to be supplied by the formation of a new bishopric, under the name of 'Manchester,' the said new diocese to be within the archiepiscopal see of York, and the county of Lancaster (which is to be detached for that purpose from the diocese of Chester,) to form the said new see. *The Irish Sees* are two archbishoprics, and twelve bishoprics. The former are Armagh, with Dromore, the annual value to the archbishop being 14,494*l.* ; and Dublin, annual income 7786*l.* The twelve bishoprics are, 1. Meath, 4068*l.* ; 2. Kildare, 6000*l.* ; 3. Clogher, 8668*l.* ; 4. Killaloe (pronounced Killaloo), with Kilfenora, Clonsfert, and Kilmacduagh united, 4041*l.* ; 5. Kilmore, with Elphin, 6253*l.* ; 6. Ossory, with Ferns and Leighlin, 4902*l.* ; 7. Down, with Connor and Dromore, 5000*l.* ; 8. Cashel, with Emly, Waterford, and Lismore, 5000*l.* ; 9. Tuam, with Ardagh, Killala, and Achonry, 6996*l.* ; 10. Derry and Raphoe, 8000*l.* ; 11. Cork, with Cloyne and Ross, 4090*l.* ; 12. Limerick, 4973*l.* *The Colonial Sees* are at present fourteen : 1. Jamaica, whose diocese includes the island of Jamaica, the Bahama isles, and Honduras, and whose annual allowance from England, (raised partly by the Society for Pro-

moting Christian Knowledge, partly by the crown), is 4000*l.*; 2. Barbados, whose diocese is divided into the two archdeaconries of Barbados and British Guiana. The first includes Barbados, St. Vincent, the Grenadines, Grenada, Cariacou, Trinidad, Tobago, and St. Lucia; and the second, the districts of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. (British Guiana has, however, recently, without pay from the government, erected itself into a separate diocese.) Annual allowance, 4000*l.*; 3. Nova Scotia (the first colonial see founded by Great Britain,) includes the archdeaconries of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Annual allowance, 2400*l.*; 4. Calcutta, whose diocese extends over the presidency of Bengal, annual allowance, 5000*l.*; 5. Madras and Ceylon, including the presidency and the island, 2500*l.*; 6. Bombay, 2500*l.*; 7. Australia, whose diocese includes all New South Wales, 2000*l.*; 8. Montreal, for Lower Canada, allowance 1000*l.* as bishop, and 900*l.* as archdeacon of Quebec; 9. Toronto, for Upper Canada, 1000*l.*; 10. Newfoundland, comprising that isle and Bermuda, 1200*l.*; 11. New Zealand, including those islands, 1000*l.*; 12. Malta and Gibraltar, 1000*l.*; 13. Van Diemen's land 1000*l.*; 14. Antigua, including Montserrat, Barbuda, St. Kitts, Nevis, Anguilla, Tortola, and the Virgin Isles, allowance about 1200*l.* *The Pipe Office*, an English law office, is one wherein a person, called 'clerk of the pipe,' makes out leases of crown-lands, and enters in the great roll of parchment kept in the exchequer, a list of all debts to the crown. From the rolls, when rolled up, looking like *pipes*, the name of the office is derived. So does the 'master of the rolls,' or keeper of the records of the court of Chancery, derive his appellation. *The Board of Green Cloth* is a court of justice held in the compting-house of the queen's household, and presided at by the lord steward. It takes cognizance of all matters appertaining to the justice and govern-

ment of the royal household, its servants, &c., and sits daily. It takes its name from a green cloth being spread over the table of session; and such modes of designating offices show a very early origin, and less stately times than the present. Thus, in Japan, at the present moment, there is 'the hall of an hundred mats,' being that in the emperor's palace where all ambassadors are received, and foreigners entertained, and named from its floor being covered by 100 ornamented straw mats. *The Board of Control* is a committee of commissioners for managing the affairs of India.

MODERN FORTIFICATION. — The long naval war connected with the French Revolution, afforded ample opportunity for watching the effects of the ancient projectile system, and for improving it in various ways; and the ordnance department of England (ever judiciously cautious regarding innovation, and the adoption of plans which, however sure of success in the minds of sanguine inventors, are too often found otherwise, when put to the test,) has recently authorized the adoption by the service of the following new species of ordnance: a *fifty-six pounder gun*, for solid shot, charge 16 lbs. of powder, length eleven feet, weight ninety-six cwt., range (at thirty-two) 5700 yards—used for distant ranges of shipping; *shell guns*, respectively, ten and eight inch, for hollow shot, used in war-steamer, against shipping, &c., and for commanding landing places, with a range of from 3000 to 4000 yards, according to elevation—all the above being mounted on traversing or ground-platforms, as required, and needing fifteen men to work them; a *thirty-two pounder gun*, charge 10 lbs., range (at 15) 3500 yards, for distant ranges against shipping, and sometimes used with hot shot; a *thirty-two pounder gun*, lighter, for planks and short ranges. There are also very improved howitzers and mortars; and numerous experiments have been recently made with what

their inventors style 'concussion' and 'percussion shells,' though none have yet been adopted in the service. In speaking of the effect of the latter, a friend of the author, a gentleman in the ordnance department, thus writes, 'From what I have seen of them, they are certainly well calculated for attacking shipping, as they burst upon striking the object; and their effect between decks must be disastrous. They are, however, dangerous weapons to use, from their liability to burst, immediately on leaving the gun; and the fragments will fly about 400 yards. Being myself aware of this, when I first saw them tried, I must confess I felt rather anxious to ensconce myself behind some stout gunners, who were paid for being shot; and as I was not, I thought they were entitled to receive their allowance first. They are, in the opinion of those who are best able to judge, highly advantageous to open a fire with upon vessels immediately they come within range, so as to cripple them previously to taking up their positions; and for which purpose the powerful pieces of ordnance before mentioned are well adapted. The advantage of this was strikingly illustrated at the bombardment of Acre, in November, 1840; as a single shell from one of the batteries struck the ship *Edinburgh*, prior to her taking her position, which killed four men, and wounded ten others, besides disabling a gun. The Egyptians were unable to open an early general fire, in consequence of their having elevated their guns for certain buoys, which they supposed were intended to mark the position for the fleet; and, at the same time, for greater protection, they raised the soles of the embrasures by means of sand-bags: their guns, being thus situated, were not readily brought to a depressed elevation. The mistake was discovered too late; as, when the fleet took its position, 15,690 lbs. of metal from a single fire of one broadside, consisting of 437 pieces of heavy ordnance, poured into the fortifications.'

BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PARLIAMENT.—The Saxons brought with them from the forests of Germany a form of government essentially free; and it is probable that to their *wittena-gemott*, or council of wise men, the parliament of England owes its origin. During the rule of **EGBERT**, the founder of the monarchy, numerous *general* meetings of the *wittena-gemott*, which had hitherto been necessarily holden in *distinct* councils, in the separate states of the Heptarchy, are noticed in history. In the time of **EDWARD THE CONFESSOR**, the French title of *parlement* (from *parler*, to talk) seems to have been commonly used in reference to the *wittena-gemott* assemblies; and probably Edward's having received the greater part of his education in France, will account for the adoption. The privileges of members of 'parlement' from arrest is at least as ancient as the time of the Confessor; by whose laws it was enacted, that those coming to the synods, whether in obedience to a summons, or to transact business, should be unmolested, or, if we translate the Latin literally, should enjoy 'the highest peace': this '*summa pax*' extended to their persons, servants, lands, and goods. **WILLIAM THE NORMAN** clearly affected to have received the *parlement's* approval of his usurpation. In the fourth year of his reign, he held a parliament, composed of twelve representatives from each county; and by this assembly the laws of the Confessor, which, with some alterations, the Conqueror had more than once engaged himself to maintain, were adopted and confirmed. This representation, however, upon the general introduction of the feudal system, was superseded by the assembly of the barons, and it was a considerable time before the people were admitted to a direct share of legislative power, by being allowed to send representatives to parliament. The feudal system was not introduced in its full force immediately after the conquest, nor by the

will and arbitrary power of the Conqueror; but it was gradually established by the Norman barons, in such portions of territory as they had received in reward for their services, and it was afterwards confirmed by a great council of the nation. In the 19th of William's reign, the king was attended at Sarum by all the nobility; when the principal land-holders agreed to hold their lands by military tenure, became vassals of the king, and did homage and fealty to his person; the introduction of the feudal system thus receiving the sanction of a parliament. WILLIAM II. held councils at Winchester and Rockingham, in which he promised to place the government on the same basis as that on which it stood before the conquest, and to rule according to the ancient laws of the realm; but he never redeemed the pledge. Excepting this recognition of the old constitution, his reign affords few materials for a parliamentary history. HENRY I. was elected by the great council of the kingdom; and in pursuance of a sworn compact with his people, he granted a charter, by which he restored the laws of 'the holy king Edward,' with such emendations as had been made in them by his father, with the advice of his barons. This charter is considered by sir Henry Spelman as the original of king John's 'Magna Charta;' since the latter contains most of its articles, either particularly expressed, or in general, under the confirmation it gives to the laws of Edward the Confessor. An assembly of the great men of the realm was convened at London by Henry in 1106, of which he sought aid against the attempts of the Normans in favour of his elder brother Robert; and on this occasion he delivered a speech from the throne, which is the first English regal one on record. In the next year, another convention of the estates was held in the royal palace at London, by which the king was empowered to correct the clergy for the offence of marriage; and, under sanc-

tion of this authority, he obtained large sums of money, compounding with the priests, for certain annual payments, that they should be allowed to indulge their inclination in that matter. STEPHEN, like his predecessor, was elected by the clergy and people. His first charter, which was granted at a meeting of the bishops, barons, and other great men, held at Oxford, 1136, confirms the liberties and good laws granted by his uncle, king Henry, and all good laws and customs which the nation had enjoyed in the time of Edward the Confessor. Another general council was held by this monarch in 1152; at which he made an ineffectual attempt to induce the archbishop to crown his son Eustace, and thus to deprive duke Henry, son of the empress Matilda, of his right of succession. HENRY II., in 1155, soon after his coronation, convoked a general assembly, or parliament, at Wallingford, where he made the barons take an oath in favour of his sons William and Henry; of whom the former survived this ceremony only a few days. Before the assembly separated, the king consented that the laws of Edward should be vigorously enforced; and he voluntarily confirmed the charter of his grandfather, Henry I. The sixteen articles of the celebrated 'Constitutions of Clarendon,' whereby the king curtailed the power of the pope and the clergy in England, and greatly narrowed the total exemption they claimed from the secular jurisdiction, were enacted in this reign, by a convention of the estates, held at the same place, 1164, in which John de Oxford, the king's chaplain, was appointed to preside. It consisted of the archbishops, bishops, abbots, priors, earls, barons, and nobles of the realm; and approached nearer to a mixed parliament, than any previous assembly under the monarchs of the Norman line. RICHARD I. held five parliaments of bishops and barons; but many edicts were made by him without any mention of their

being enacted with the advice and consent of his barons. In the early part of the reign of JOHN, in an assembly of secular and ecclesiastical nobles which met in St. Paul's cathedral, London, with a view to settle the disputes between the king and his barons, cardinal Langton, archbishop of Canterbury, produced and read a copy of the charter which Henry I. had granted at the beginning of his reign; and of which authentic copies had been deposited in the principal monasteries, but had either been lost, by the negligence of those who had the charge of them, or been suppressed, by the care which that king and his successors took to abolish all remembrance of the grant. The copy produced by the cardinal was the only one then known to exist; and it contained in substance a recital of the liberties which the people of England had enjoyed during the domination of the Saxon kings, particularly in the reign of Edward the Confessor. The barons, upon learning its contents, of which they had before but an obscure knowledge, determined upon making it the basis of their claims; and, having bound themselves to this resolution by an oath, they demanded of the king the re-establishment of the laws of 'St. Edward,' and the other rights and privileges contained in the charter of Henry I. This demand, as is known to our readers, gave rise to a civil war, in which the king being defeated, he then consented to sign the great charter of common liberties, usually called *Magna Charta*, and likewise the charter of Forests. It is generally agreed that the constitution of parliament, as it now exists, was principally marked out by this great charter of English liberties, which was signed by king John, on the 15th of June, 1215, in the 17th year of his reign, and is entitled, on the record, 'The Agreement between king John, on the one part, and the earls, barons, and freemen of the whole kingdom, on the other.' It is the foundation of the statute-law of

the kingdom; and, as such, is inserted immediately before the printed statutes. The Saxon custom of assembling the parliament in open plains, had been disused under the Norman dynasty,—all the great councils since the Conquest having been held in churches, abbeys, and royal castles; but, on the occasion of passing the Great Charter, the old usage was revived, by using the meadow of Runnimeade (see vol. i, p. 554). HENRY III., at an assembly of the barons in London, 1223, confirmed, at the desire of the archbishop of Canterbury and others, the liberties for which the war had been prosecuted with his father, and which both the king and all the nobility had sworn 'to observe, and cause to be observed.' Though the same king, when of age, endeavoured to cancel his grant, and even the *Magna Charta* itself, he subsequently convened councils of the nation at Merton and Oxford; at the latter of which it was resolved that there should be three parliaments thenceforth in the year. At them were to be assembled all the chosen counsellors of the king, to provide for the state, and to treat of the common business of the realm when necessary, by the command of the king, or by his summons. Twelve wise men were then elected by the barons to serve in these parliaments, as representatives for the whole of the nation; and their acts were to be deemed binding. Henry and his nobles being constantly engaged in struggles for supremacy in the state, several parliaments were held by the barons without the king's consent; and after the battle of Lewes, in which Henry's party sustained a defeat, the barons compelled him in 1264, to summon four knights to represent each county, and four for each of the counties of the cities of London, York, and Lincoln. The counties of Chester and Durham had at this time palatinate parliaments; and that of Monmouth formed part of the marches of Wales, then divided into shires. This parliament

has been generally considered the first in which it appears incontestibly that the counties were represented. The 49th of this monarch's reign, 1265, is, by legal authorities, usually assigned as the era at which representative parliaments may be considered as properly commencing. Early in that year, writs were sent to the nobles, and to the sheriffs of the several counties, by the earl of Leicester, in the king's name, enjoining the latter to return two knights for each county, two citizens for each city, and two burgesses for each borough; the latter being a class of persons hitherto regarded as too mean to have a place in the national councils, (see vol. i. pp. 569, 570). EDWARD I., in his first parliament, 1274, enacted laws for securing the peace and liberties of the people, the immunities of the church, and the privileges of the clergy: these were called the statutes of Westminster, and contain fifty-one chapters; and the first mention of the word *parliament*, in the English statute-law, occurs in the preamble to them. The Mortmain Act was passed by him. His parliament held at Rhuddlan, 1282, enacted the irrevocable annexation of Wales to the realm of England; and that of 1290, also under Edward I., is considered one of the models upon which our present parliaments are formed. In that year, writs and summons were directed to the sheriffs, commanding them to cause two or three of the discreetest and ablest knights to be chosen for each county, to have full power, for themselves, and the whole community of the commons of the county, to deliberate upon and consent to such things as the earls, barons, and great men should think fit to determine. The counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Cumberland, Cambridge, and Huntingdon, accordingly returned each three knights; and each of the other counties returned two. The same king's parliament, of 1295, shows beyond a doubt that cities and boroughs sent representatives to par-

liament, in addition to the knights of the shires. The writs for this parliament directed the sheriffs to return two citizens for each city, and two burgesses for each borough within their county, of the most discreet and fit for business, provided with power, separately for themselves and the communities of the cities and boroughs which they represented, to do what should be ordained by the common council, 'as what concerns all,' to use the language of the writs, 'should be approved of by all.' This parliament was summoned to meet on the Sunday next after the feast of St. Martin. The parliamentary representatives were at this period, and long afterwards, paid by their constituents; and many of the boroughs, in consequence of the pressure of this expense, sought to be, and were released from exercising the elective franchise. The celebrated Andrew Marvel, who lived during the Commonwealth, a man of stern, uncompromising integrity, was the last parliamentary representative who received pay from his constituents: he died in 1678, member for Hull, of which he had been for twenty years the representative. The borough members were generally tradesmen, no landed qualification being required, as in the case of county representatives; and the king's principal object in summoning them was to obtain their consent to impose contributions upon the trading classes of the community. The whole number of counties, cities, and boroughs, summoned in 1295, was 149, two members only for each county; London alone being permitted to retain the privilege of sending four. To this parliament the clergy were also summoned, as appears by a writ directed to the archbishop of Canterbury, commanding him 'to warn the prior and chapter of that church, and the archdeacon, and clergy of his diocese, in order that the prior and archdeacon, in their own persons, and the chapter by one, and the clergy by two, fit procurators or proxies, having suffi-

cient power from the chapter and clergy, should come with him to the parliament.' The members assembled in two houses: the knights of the shires continued, as in the preceding reign, to sit with the barons, and the citizens and burgesses, in conformity with the writ, deliberated by themselves. The clergy also formed at this time a distinct body, not having voted with the laity until a later period; but although they consulted by themselves, it does not appear that they possessed the power of resisting the imposition upon them of a tax submitted to by the rest of the community. In the year 1297, we find that, on their refusal to grant a subsidy, until they had received the commands of the pope on the subject, the king, by consent of the parliament, seized upon all their lands and possessions, and the chief-justice of the King's Bench, sitting in his tribunal, pronounced sentence against them in these words: 'You that are the proctors, or attorneys, for the archbishops, bishops, abbots, and priors, with the rest of the clergy, take notice to acquaint all your masters, that, for the future, no manner of justice shall be done them in any of the king's courts, on any cause whatsoever; but justice shall be had against them by every one that will complain and require it of us.' A parliament was summoned to meet at Salisbury in the same year, when the king demanded the assistance of his earls, barons, and knights, who held in capite to the amount of twenty pounds a year, either to go in person to Flanders, or to contribute to the expedition; and many of the nobility and knights not only refused to go, but would not agree to the contribution, unless it was ordained by common consent of parliament. After a brief struggle with his parliament, the king yielded; declaring that, for the future, he would not attempt to levy any tax or aid without the consent of the archbishops, bishops, and other prelates, and the earls, barons, knights, burgesses, and other free

men of the realm. The universities were, in general, not empowered to send burgesses to parliament at his period; but on one occasion, in the year 1300, when a parliament was summoned to consider of the king's right to Scotland, writs were issued requiring the university of Oxford to send up four or five, and that of Cambridge two or three, of their most discreet and learned lawyers. In the reign of EDWARD II., the number of counties, cities, and boroughs, which sent representatives to parliament, was 121; but many of the cities and boroughs summoned by Edward I., were omitted by his successor, and a few which had not sent representatives to the parliaments of the former, were now invested with the elective franchise. The mode of passing acts of parliament at this period differed from that which now prevails. The bills were drawn, in form of petitions, which were entered upon the parliament rolls, with the king's answer subjoined, not in any settled form of words, but as the circumstances of the case required; and at the end of each parliament, the judges drew them into the form of a statute, which was entered on the statute rolls. The civil wars which divided the kingdom during this reign, having terminated in the imprisonment of the king in Kenilworth Castle, Isabel, the unfeeling queen consort, convoked the parliament to meet at Westminster. On its assembling, articles were exhibited against the monarch, declaratory of his incapacity as a ruler; and the parliament then proceeded to depose him, and to elect his son in his stead. This legislative act was ratified by the king's solemn abdication of his throne on the 20th of January, 1327; from which day the reign of EDWARD III. is dated. At the parliament held at Salisbury, in 1328, the earl of Leicester, and some other noblemen, refused to attend, assigning as a reason, that though it had been decreed that no person whatsoever should presume to come armed, yet that the lord

Mortimer came with many armed men: by which the earl was apprehensive that his person was in danger. Hence it appears that it was usual to prohibit the wearing of arms on such occasions. In the parliament of 1330, in this reign, it was enacted that the king should hold a parliament every year, or oftener, *if need be*. At this period, the transactions of parliament were despatched with great rapidity; all things being prepared for its consideration by the king and council, before its meeting. For the purpose of forwarding the business of the session, committees were appointed to receive petitions, and to try the matters of fact alleged in them, so that they might be rightly stated before they came to be debated in full parliament; and by this means the whole business of a session was often disposed of in a week or ten days. It was in the writs issued by Edward III. for summoning the parliament of 1340, 'for the granting of supplies to prosecute the war with France,' that a new seal was used; wherein was placed, for the first time, the fleur-de-lis of France, in addition to the lions of England—Edward having, to commemorate his Gallic contests, assumed the style and arms of that kingdom. In 1342, the knights of the shires, who had hitherto been members of the upper house, began to sit with the citizens and burgesses; and this division of the parliament shortly afterwards became permanent. The rate of wages payable to the members of the commons was fixed in this reign; four shillings a day being allowed for a knight of the shire, and two shillings for a citizen or burgess. The number of counties, &c., sending members in this reign was 192. RICHARD II. succeeded 1377; and in that year is recorded, for the first time, the election of a speaker of the commons, in the person of sir Peter Delamere. In the parliament held at Gloucester 1378, sir James Pickering was chosen speaker, and recognised by the king in nearly the same manner as is ob-

served at this day. After the lord chancellor had ended his speech, sir James came, with the whole body of the commons, before the king, prelates, and lords in parliament, and there made a protestation, which afterwards became usual on such occasions, as well for the whole commons of England, as for himself, to this effect: first, that if he should utter any thing to the prejudice, damage, slander, or disgrace of the king or his crown, or in lessening the honour or estates of the great lords, it might not be taken notice of by the king; and that the lords would pass it by as if nothing had been said; for the commons highly desired to maintain the honour and estate of the king, and the rights of the crown; and also to preserve the reverence due to the lords in all points. Then, as for his own person, he made protestation, that if, by indiscretion, he spoke any thing by common assent of his fellow members, it might, either then or afterwards, be amended by them. At this period, the principal business of the commons was the important office of voting the supplies. They did not interfere much in matters connected with the general policy of the government, especially respecting foreign affairs; ordinary business, and even some arduous affairs of the kingdom, were frequently determined by the peers alone. In the parliament of 1379, a remarkable transaction took place, which shows that the clergy, assembled in Convocation, were not then looked upon as wholly a distinct estate. When the king and both houses resolved to enlarge the powers of the justices of peace, the prelates and clergy, in their Convocation, made an express protestation against it, 'that it had not, and never should pass with their consent;' to which the king replied, 'that he would not forbear to make his justices, as he was wont, and, by his coronation oath, was obliged to do.' In granting supplies, however, the clergy still continued to maintain their independence of the other estates

of the realm. The custom of the speakers' praying to be excused by the king from filling the office to which they had been elected by the commons, originated with sir Richard Walsgrave, knight, in the parliament held in 1381. After the lord chancellor's discourse on the opening of parliament, sir Richard desired to be excused, and discharged from the office of speaker; but the king insisting upon his allegiance, that he should stand as being chosen by his companions, he made the usual protestation. In 1386, the commons, being resolved on the impeachment of Michael de la Pole, earl of Suffolk, and lord chancellor, sent a message to the king, representing that the chancellor ought to be removed from his office. The king made the contemptuous and memorable reply, 'that he would not for them, or at their instance, remove the meanest scullion in his kitchen;' whereon the parliament presented a bold remonstrance to his majesty, defining the duties, and explaining the utility, of parliaments. Chancellor de la Pole was, in the end, discharged from his office, and impeached by the commons. An instance of extraordinary humility towards the king, on the part of the commons, occurred in the session of January, 1397. Among the petitions then presented by them, was one 'for avoiding of the extravagant expenses of the king's household, and to forbid bishops and ladies, who had no particular business there, from frequenting the court.' The king, being informed of the contents of it, was highly incensed, and told the peers, that it was directed against those liberties and royalties which his progenitors had enjoyed, and which he was resolved to uphold and maintain. He therefore commanded the lords spiritual and temporal to inform the commons of his resolution, and particularly ordered the duke of Lancaster to charge sir John Bussy, their speaker, upon his allegiance, to acquaint him who it was that brought it into parliament. The commons

soon after came before his majesty in full parliament, and expressed their regret for having interfered in any matter touching the government of his house, or concerning the lords and ladies of his court: they even condemned to death Thomas Haxey, clerk, who had introduced the bill; and that member would probably have suffered punishment in pursuance of the sentence, had it not been for the timely intercession of the clergy, at whose request the king granted his pardon. During the absence of Richard in Ireland, in 1399, the duke of Lancaster, son of the before-mentioned duke, who died in that year, was invited to the throne; and Richard was, by a decree of parliament, subsequently ratified by his own abdication, solemnly deposed. The parliament which met for this purpose, having been absolutely dissolved as soon as the king's renunciation was made, and his cession and deposition taken, it was deemed a necessary form, on the suggestion of the archbishop of Canterbury, to issue writs immediately in the name of the new king, HENRY IV., first monarch of the house of Lancaster, which were made returnable in the short space of six days. The king, however, made a protestation that this abbreviation of times should not be deemed a precedent. In the parliament of 1400, the commons declared that it was not customary to grant any subsidy, before they had received answers to their petitions. Upon this, the king required a conference with the lords; and on the last day of the session, he gave the commons this answer:—'that there was never any such usage known, but that they should first go through with all other business; which ordinance the king intended not to alter.' The commons also petitioned that, because it might happen that some of their members, to please the king, and to procure their own advancement, might relate matters debated in the house, before they were determined, his majesty would not give credit to such reports. To

this the king replied, that the commons should have free deliberation to debate on what concerned the advancement and honour of the kingdom; and that he would never give ear to any such relation, till it was sent by the whole house. On the last day of the session, all the commons kneeled before the king, and besought him to pardon them, if, through ignorance, they had offended him in any thing,—which the king readily granted: the whole assembly then heard mass, and the commons having offered their granted subsidy, the king returned them thanks, and the chancellor dismissed them to their homes. One of the first acts of the commons in the parliament of 1404, was, with the accordance of the lords, to regulate the king's household, by requiring the removal of four persons, whom they named; and this was accordingly done, though not without apparent reluctance on the part of the monarch, who said, 'that he knew no cause why they should be removed, but only because they were hated by the people.' In the same parliament the commons petitioned the king, that the customary privilege from arrest of members of parliament and their servants, during the time of their coming, staying, and returning, might be enforced; and that treble damages might be awarded against persons concerned in arresting them. An act was also passed, imposing a penalty on any one who should assault a servant of a knight attending parliament. In 1405, a parliament was summoned at Coventry, styled by historians, but especially by lawyers, *parliamentum indoctum*, 'the lack learning parliament,' because of its act of prohibition, grounded on an ordinance of the house of lords, wherein it was directed 'that *no apprentice, or other man of the law*, should be elected a knight of the shire therein.' An act was passed also for regulating county elections, still extant in the statute-books. The speaker of the commons, sir John Tibetot, having spoken more boldly to the king and

lords than any speaker had done before him, the king and lords thought proper to put a check upon it, as a novelty inconsistent with the king's prerogative; so that the speakers afterwards became more modest, and did not say any thing that was displeasing to the king, or, if they casually did, they prayed 'it might be imputed only to their ignorance, and not unto the commons.' In this reign, ninety-six cities and boroughs, including the cinque-ports, sent members to parliament, in addition to the knights of the shires. The first enactment in the reign of HENRY V. was to confirm and improve the statutes which had been made by his predecessors regulating elections and the duty of sheriffs; and it also aimed at reforming the conduct of sheriffs, who, from motives of private interest, had made false returns to the writs, and sometimes had made no returns at all. Six boroughs in this reign were omitted; and Bedwin and Calne, which had not sent members to parliament since the reign of Edward III., were added. The right of elections was at this period tried before the king's justices. The statute which renders the reign of HENRY VI. particularly memorable in the annals of the English parliament, is that passed in the 8th of his reign, by which the privilege of voting for knights of the shire was confined to persons possessing lands or tenements of the annual value of *forty shillings* at the least. The reason for this alteration is assigned, in the preamble, where it is stated 'that the county elections had of late been made by outrageous and excessive numbers of people, mostly of small substance, of whom each pretended a voice equivalent, as to such elections to be made, with the most worthy knights and esquires dwelling within the same counties, whereby manslaughter, riots, batteries, and divisions, amongst the gentlemen and other people of the same counties, would very likely rise and be, unless remedy were provided.' The statute proceeds to enjoin, 'that

the knights should be chosen, in every county, by people dwelling therein; of whom every one should have land or tenements of the value of forty shillings per annum at the least, over and above all charges: the knights also were, by its provisions, to be resident within the counties for which they were chosen. The persons empowered by this act to exercise the elective franchise were, by a statute made two years afterwards, defined to be 'those possessing freeholds of the annual value of forty shillings within the county for which the election was to be made. The value of forty shillings was of course at this period far greater than that of the same nominal sum at the present day. Bishop Fleetwood, who wrote at the beginning of the last century, has proved, from a comparison of the prices of provisions and labour at different times, that forty shillings in the reign of Henry VI. was equal to twelve pounds in the reign of queen Anne; and, as the value of money has very considerably lowered since the bishop wrote, it may be concluded, that what was equivalent to twelve pounds in his day, is equivalent to twenty at present. The mode of electing citizens and burgesses was, at the petition of the commons, determined by an act in 1444, the 23d of the same reign. The parliament of 1452 interfered in an extraordinary manner with the establishment composing the king's household, by petitioning for the removal of nearly all his court. To this Henry replied, 'that as to himself, he was well contented that they should go, unless they were lords and a few others, whom he could not well spare from about his person; and so to continue absent for one year, to see if any man could truly lay any thing to their charge.' In the next year, Thomas Thorp, speaker of the commons, was imprisoned at the suit of the duke of York, for carrying away his (the duke's) goods out of Durham House, for which he remained in execution; and the house thereupon chose a

new speaker. The borough of Gattton was in this reign summoned to send members to parliament; and Heytesbury, Hindon, Westbury, and Wootton-Bassett, in Wiltshire, were now first enfranchised. In this reign also, bills in the form of acts, according to the modern custom, were first introduced. The attendance of the clergy (under the rank of prelates) in parliament, appears to have been continued, with some intermissions, until this period; after which they are scarcely ever mentioned as being present. The parliament of EDWARD IV., 1472, was the longest in duration that had hitherto sitten; having continued, with the several prorogations, nearly two years and an half. A memorable event in the reign of this prince, in reference to parliamentary representation, was the granting of a charter to Wenlock in Shropshire, empowering it to send one member to parliament. This was the first of a series of charters, by which the elective franchise in most cities and boroughs was at length confined to the respective corporations. Originally, the right of election was in the body of the people; and that usage remains unimpaired in a few places to this day. An important consequence resulted from the establishment of this precedent of a charter confirming the right of a borough to send members to parliament. Similar privileges having been, in course of time, granted to a great number of boroughs, the possession of a charter began to be considered as a necessary qualification to enable a borough to nominate representatives; and such as did not obtain charters were in danger of losing that privilege. In this reign Grant-ham in Lincolnshire, and Ludlow in Shropshire, were first summoned; Plymouth, Gattton, and Westbury, were omitted; and Ilchester was restored. After the short nominal reign of EDWARD V., during which no parliament was held, RICHARD III. held a parliament, in which he

was declared and elected king, by the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons. This parliament is distinguished by the abolition of a compulsory contribution, which had been first exacted by Edward IV., under the specious name of 'Benevolence,' but which had become an instrument of the most cruel oppression of the people. This unpopular tax, however, was revived by a parliament of HENRY VII., on occasion of the country going to war with France, 1490; and in this manner great sums were raised, the city of London alone contributing more than 9000*l*. Henry VII. maintained considerable authority over his parliaments, and even forced the commons to make his creature, Dudley, though so odious to the public, their speaker. Yet we find the privileges of the house of commons in this reign were materially augmented. They inflicted an exemplary punishment on one of their members, named Tyrrell, for acquainting the king with the debates: he was committed to the Tower, and both he and his posterity were, by an act, disabled from sitting or serving as representatives for any place whatever. Previously to this reign, such members of the commons as had occasion to be absent, petitioned the king for leave to depart; and members who absented themselves, without leave, were punished by a fine, assessed by a jury of commoners, on information exhibited in the court of King's Bench, for disobedience to the king's command expressed in his writ of summons. But henceforward the commons assumed the power of punishing their own members for absence, as an offence against the house; and this was a most important accession of power to the lower house of parliament. HENRY VIII. was the first who strenuously tried to free himself from all control of a house of commons, in the disposal of the national wealth, by attempting, in 1522, after he had declared war against France, to raise money with-

out parliamentary authority; and Wolsey, his minister, gratified his despotic inclinations. That prelate sent orders to the sheriffs, to return a list of the names of all persons above the age of sixteen; with an accurate account of what each was worth in land, stock, moveables, and money. A general loan was then required, of a tenth from the laity, and a fourth from the clergy. The cardinal, in the next year, appeared before the commons, to explain the necessity of the war which the king had declared against France; and obtained the promise of a subsidy of a tenth part of their goods, to be exacted from every layman. The duration of parliaments was, in this reign, protracted to an extent before unknown. Instead of being dissolved after a single session, as had been usual, they were from time to time prorogued. All the parliaments also of Henry VIII. were remarkable for their subserviency to the will of the monarch, who scarcely ever desired any thing of them which they did not perform; and in return for the despotic power which they enabled him to assume, he permitted them to enjoy privileges of a very extended character. Hence the wants of even arbitrary sovereigns have mainly led to this unintentional augmentation of the people's power. In the twenty-seventh of this reign, Wales was admitted to a thorough communion of laws with the subjects of England; and twelve counties of the principality, and as many towns, having for the most part contributory boroughs, were authorised to send each one member to the English parliament. A remarkable feature in the constitution of the commons, at this era, was the representation of Calais, which was now first summoned to send a burgess to the English parliament, and continued to possess this privilege until its recovery by the French, in the reign of queen Mary. The whole number of cities and boroughs which now sent representatives, was 180, and the

number of members returned by them, 336. Hitherto the eldest sons of peers were prohibited from sitting in the commons; but this regulation was altered by a decision of the first parliament of the reign of EDWARD VI. In 1552, a bill was brought into the upper house, for 'taxes and assessments for the relief of poor and impotent persons,' which, having passed in that form, and under that title, afterwards came to the commons; some of whom thinking that the lords had usurped their privilege of imposing a tax, the title was altered to 'An Act for the Provision and Relief of the Poor',—by which the churchwardens were empowered to collect contributions; and if any should refuse to contribute, or dissuade others from doing so, the bishop of the diocese was authorised to proceed against them. In the first parliament of MARY I., the question whether the clergy could sit in the commons, was agitated in the case of Dr. Nowel, prebendary of Westminster, who had been returned as member for Looe, in Cornwall; and a committee having been appointed to search for precedents, it was reported that the doctor, being represented in the Convocation, could not be a member of the house of commons; in virtue of which decision he was expelled. One of the same parliament's acts was to legitimate the queen's birth, by repealing the acts of parliament confirming the sentence of divorce pronounced by Cranmer between Henry VIII. and queen Catherine. A secession took place of thirty-seven of the commons, in consequence of the great return of Roman Catholics to the parliament of 1554, and of the restoration of the pope's supremacy: amongst the number returned to parliament was the celebrated Plowden—but the queen's death saved all the seceders from punishment. [*Edmund Plowden* was a native of Shropshire, and after an education at both Oxford and Cambridge, resigned medicine for the legal profession; in which, during the reign of queen

Mary, he became a sergeant-at-law. His works are of considerable value, consisting of 'Commentaries, or Reports,' containing numerous important law cases that were argued and determined in the reigns of Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth; the whole being most accurately set down. Plowden, being a Romanist, received no further promotion from Elizabeth; and he died, much respected, at the age of 67, 1585.] Under queen ELIZABETH, 1565, after some fuss about the choice of Mr. Richard Onslow as speaker of the commons, (who pleaded his own ineligibility, as being solicitor-general, which forced him to attend in the lords,) the queen commanded him to be appointed, and there ended the matter; and then began a mighty dispute between her majesty and the commons. The latter had proposed the marriage of the queen; but the queen was determined they should not interfere with her private affairs, and summoning thirty of the most refractory members to appear before her, she rebuked them, made them apologise, and dismissed them. The queen after this interfered with the parliament frequently; complaining of one member having gone out of his duty to propose a reformation of the Book of Common Prayer, and of others interfering with prerogatives of the crown. These disputes usually produced a declaration by the house, of the queen's invasion of its rights—and there, after a little apology to her majesty, the matter ended. The parliament of 1575 was extended by eighteen prorogations, to eleven years. In the reign of Elizabeth, the privilege of sending representatives was granted to the following boroughs: East Looe, Fowey, St. Germans, St. Mawes, Kellington, Beer-Alston, Corfe-Castle, Cirencester, Queenborough, Newtown, Clitheroe, Bishops-Castle, Minehead, Stockbridge, Newton, Christchurch, Lymington, Whitchurch, Tamworth, Aldborough, Sudbury, Eye, Haslemere, and Richmond. The following were restored: Tre-

goney, Maidstone, East Retford, Yarmouth, Newport in the Isle of Wight, Andover, and Beverley; making in all thirty-one boroughs, each sending two members to parliament. In the first parliament of JAMES I. was seen that preparation for a collision between privilege and prerogative, which burst forth, and came to so awful a crisis, in the next reign. The tyranny of the Tudors having come to a natural end, the commons could ill brook even a slight display of regal prerogative on the part of a stranger-king—especially when it was expected, from the simplicity of the Scottish character, arising from more primitive habits than those of the English, that James would stand too much in awe of a parliament, so much above his northern one in wealth, influence, and claims of privilege, to attempt its control. The house had determined, in the first sitting of James's first parliament, that sir Francis Goodwin was duly elected knight for the county of Bucks, and that sir John Fortescue was not duly elected. The king, resolving to interpose his authority, sent to the house of lords, to demand a conference with the commons, relative to the election of the sitting member; but the commons would not grant the conference, as they did not consider themselves under any obligation to render any account of the matter. By their speaker they assigned their reasons to the king why they could not admit of such innovation: however, all they could obtain from his majesty, was a positive command to confer with the judges, instead of the lords. This measure was equally disagreeable to them; and, showing in writing why they could not comply with either conference, they desired the lords to intercede with the king, that he might not commit such a breach of their privileges. The dispute was adjusted only by sir Francis Goodwin's yielding up his right, rather than become an instrument of quarrel between the king and the commons;

and this expedient prevented matters from proceeding to extremity. The house, however, in a solemn apology touching their privileges, which they shortly afterwards addressed to the king, insisted that they alone were entitled to adjudicate upon the return of all writs, and the election of all members; without which, the freedom of election would not be entire. And they also stated, that the chancery, although it was a standing court under his majesty for sending out those writs, and receiving and preserving the returns, did so only for the use of the parliament; over which neither the chancery, nor any other court, ever had, nor ought to have, any manner of jurisdiction. In one of James's subsequent parliaments, a slight difference arose between the lords and the commons, during their debates on the subject of the union of the two kingdoms, more particularly with regard to the naturalization of the Scotch; and the conferences which took place were for some time characterized by disingenuous proceedings, and very unfriendly behaviour towards each other. Sir Christopher Piggott, a member of the commons, uttered some strong invectives against the Scots, which created much amazement in the house, though no further notice was taken of his conduct at the time: some days afterwards, however, a message was received from the king, signifying his majesty's displeasure thereat, and taxing the commons with neglect, for not proceeding against the offender. In consequence of this, sir Christopher was arraigned at the bar, and, after an unsuccessful attempt to explain, was ordered to be committed to the Tower, and expelled the house. During the whole of this reign, a continual struggle was maintained between the king and his parliaments, to ascertain the just limits of prerogative and privilege. The king sought to extend his prerogative so far as to punish at will such members of the house of com-

mons as were obnoxious to him, and to prevent that body from interfering in the discussion of the government, and mysteries of state. Previously to the adjournment of the parliament, sir Edwin Sandys, a member of the house, having spoken with great earnestness and freedom on various matters of moment, had incurred the displeasure of the king and his ministers. The house, by its vote, had acquitted him of the imputation of having given any just cause of offence; but as soon as the adjournment took place, he was committed by a warrant of the privy council, for a misdemeanor. After a confinement of nearly six months, he was liberated by a warrant from the king, a few days before the parliament again met. The king's ministers denied that sir Edwin had been committed for any thing said or done in parliament; but it was declared that no member of parliament ought to be confined, except for acts of felony or treason; and it was contended, that members who had been acquitted by the house for expressions disliked by ministers, were not to be prosecuted by order of the privy council, or otherwise. When the parliament met after the adjournment, a message was delivered to the commons, with his majesty's commands 'not to interfere with any state matters but such as should be recommended to their consideration.' This extraordinary mandate alarmed the house; they conceived that it was intended to be made a precedent for their not being permitted, in future, to debate upon any question but such as the king should think proper to direct; whereby they would lose the privilege of being a free parliament. Long and violent debates followed; and several petitions were successively presented to the king, asserting the privileges of the house, as its ancient and undoubted right of inheritance. The king, in his answer, states, that although it was not his intention to deny to the commons any lawful privileges which they had

theretofore enjoyed, yet he would not allow them to style their privileges 'their ancient and undoubted right of inheritance;' he wished they had said that their privileges were derived from the grace and permission of his ancestors and himself; for most of them grew from precedents, which marked a toleration rather than an inheritance.' Notwithstanding the king's having thus explained himself, a committee of the whole house was ordered to take into consideration every matter touching their liberties and privileges, and all things incident thereto. A protestation was resolved on, declaring 'that the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdictions of parliament, are the ancient and undoubted birthright of the subjects of England; and that the arduous and urgent affairs concerning the king, state, and the defence of the realm and of the church of England, and the making and maintaining of laws, and redress of mischiefs and grievances which daily happen within this realm, are proper subjects of council and debate in parliament; and that, in the handling and proceeding of those businesses, every member of the house of commons hath, and of right ought to have, freedom of speech, to propound, treat, reason, and bring to conclusion, the same; that the commons in parliament have like liberty and freedom to treat of those matters, in such order as in their judgments shall seem fittest; and that every member of the said house hath like freedom from all impeachment, imprisonment, and molestation (other than by the censure of the house itself), for or concerning any bill, speaking, reasoning, or declaring of any matter touching the parliament or parliament business; and that, if any of the members be complained of and questioned for any thing said or done in parliament, the same is to be shown to the king, by the advice and consent of all the commons assembled in parliament, before the king give credence to any private information.'

The protestation was, according to custom, entered in the journals of the house ; but it was so offensive to the king, that he sent for the journal-book, and, in full assembly of his council, and in the presence of the judges, declared the protestation to be 'invalid, annulled, void, and of no effect ; and did further, with his own hand, take it out of the journal-book of the clerk of the commons' house of parliament, and commanded an act of council to be made thereupon, and this act to be entered in the register of council causes.' The parliament was shortly afterwards dissolved, by a proclamation in which the king expressed his anger at the attempt made by the commons ; which he characterised as 'an usurpation, that the majesty of a king could by no means endure.' After the dissolution, several of the members obnoxious to the king, were committed to prison by authority of the council. The following boroughs were restored in this reign : Harwich, Evesham, Ilchester, Pontefract, Amersham, Wendover, Great Marlow, and Hertford ; and the boroughs created were, Cambridge University, Oxford University, Bewdley, Tewkesbury, Tiverton, and Bury St. Edmunds ; the borough of Bewdley was empowered to send only one member. The first parliament of CHARLES I. opened, almost ominously, with a motion to insure harmony and a good understanding between the king and parliament ; and on the fourth day, the solicitor-general acquainted the house, 'that the king had taken care of their grievances preferred the last parliament ; and, at any one day the house would assign, satisfaction would be given them therein.' Probably one of the earliest enemies made by king Charles was sir Edward Coke. It is said, that, to disqualify certain members of the commons, who had been zealous in their opposition to the court during the last parliament, their names were pricked by the king for the office of sheriff for the ensuing year.

Amongst these was that of sir Edward ; who had been nominated sheriff for the county of Bucks, but was, notwithstanding, returned one of the knights of the shire for Norfolk, in the parliament which met in the following month of February, 1626, contrary to the tenor of the writ of election. This led to a message from the king, desiring that the commons would issue a new writ for that county. Sir Edward had demurred to the oath of a sheriff, insisting that one part of it, which was 'to destroy and eradicate all heresies commonly called Lollardies,' was not to be taken : this produced an order of council, whereby the clause objected to was in future to be omitted in the form of the oath. The affair was referred to the committee of privileges and elections ; in the report of which many cases were cited *pro et contra*, regarding the high sheriff for one county being elected knight of the shire for another ; on all which the committee refused to give an opinion, desiring that a search might be made amongst the records, for more precedents of a like nature. The result of the proceedings, however, is not mentioned in the journals : but in all probability sir Edward lost his seat, as it does not appear that he took part in any of the subsequent debates during this session. The resolution of the commons to impeach the duke of Buckingham, the king's favourite minister, was the first symptom of division ; and the frequent charges and recriminations consequent on Charles's determination to protect the obnoxious nobleman, ended in the king's dissolution of the parliament. As the commons had refused all supplies of money, Charles now resorted to those arbitrary methods of raising it, which are shown (in his reign) to have terminated in the civil war that led to his dethronement and death. It was on the 6th of February, 1649, a week after the king's judicial murder, that the commons passed a resolution, declaring the house of peers in parliament 'useless

and dangerous,' and affirming that it ought to be abolished. On the next day, the COMMONWEALTH was established, by a resolution 'that the office of a king in this nation, being found unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous to the liberty, safety, and public interest of the people, is henceforth for ever abolished.' Acts founded on these resolutions were passed on the 17th of March, and proclaimed in London and Westminster. The commons then erected a council of state, to act and proceed according to the instructions that were to be given by themselves; ordered the great seal to be broken, and a new one to be made, thus investing themselves with sovereign authority; and, on re-appointing the judges, six of whom refused to accept commissions under the new powers, the name of the King's Bench was directed to be changed into the "Upper" Bench. The ultimate supremacy of Cromwell, Barebone's, and the Rump parliament (portions of the long parliament)—and what occurred during the tyranny of the one estate of the realm—are all recorded elsewhere. At length 'the Long Parliament,' which, with numerous alterations and interruptions, had continued for nearly twenty years, was brought to an end. It was on April 25, 1660, that a parliament, called 'the Convention Parliament' (from the commons having met without royal summons, and the lords solely by their own authority) met for the express purpose of recalling from his forced exile CHARLES II., the son of the murdered king. Though the restored king assented to constitute the 'convention' a real parliament, the lawyers doubted whether its acts need be obeyed; so that Charles called a new one, 1661, styled 'the pensionary parliament,' because so many pensions were necessarily given by it to the court—impoverished by the late events. On assembling, the commons ordered all their members to take the sacrament, according to the prescribed Liturgy, on pain of expulsion: and then, in conjunction

with the lords, directed that the instrument, called 'the Solemn League and Covenant,' should be burned by the common hangman, and all copies of it be destroyed. They likewise proceeded to abrogate many ordinances passed in the preceding reign, (the Commonwealth not being acknowledged a reign,) amongst which were the act for erecting a high court of justice for trying and judging the late king, the act for subscribing the engagement against a king and house of peers, the act for declaring the people of England to be a commonwealth and free state, the act for renouncing the title of Charles Stuart, and that for the security of the lord protector's person; all which they ordered to be burned in Westminster-hall while the courts were sitting. An act was also passed, declaring that if any person shall maliciously or advisedly affirm that both or either of the houses of parliament have any legislative authority without the king, such person shall incur the penalties of a præmunire; and another for restoring the bishops to their seats in the house of lords, of which they had been deprived in the last reign. In this parliament, a great change began in the liberties of the clergy of England, who now ceased to tax themselves as formerly, and were taxed in common with the people in parliament. Originally, the lords spiritual, or prelates, with the clergy, were esteemed, in their Convocation, one of the four estates of the realm; and they met in convocation, on the civil account of giving their own money, and securing their own secular rights and liberties. This right of taxing themselves was not disturbed by the Reformation; but after the Restoration, at a conference held by the bishops and clergy with the ministers of state, it was concluded that the clergy should silently waive the ancient custom of taxing their own body, and suffer themselves to be included in the money bills prepared by the commons, on condition of the insertion of a proviso, saving the ancient rights of

the clergy; notwithstanding which reservation, the clergy never afterwards resumed their claim. By this arrangement, the parochial clergy gained the privilege of voting for members of the commons. Sir Richard Temple's bill, to have a more frequent assembling of parliament, was thrown out; soon after which arose a conflict between the two houses, in consequence of the commons having voted the lords' decision, in a mercantile case, an infringement of their privileges. The lords had been appealed to by Mr. Skinner against the East India company, who had seized his ship, and they had awarded him 5000*l.* damages; and although the king, to end the dispute, adjourned the parliament, the lords committed sir Samuel Bernardiston, deputy-governor of the company, to the custody of their officer, the usher of the Black Rod. To prevent the spread of popery, the Test act was now passed, which was regarded with as much horror by dissenters as by catholics; the commons impeached the *Cabal* ministry, whose intrigues, profuseness of expenditure, wicked counsels, and general corrupt practices, had excited the indignation of the people, and materially diminished the popularity of the crown; and that valuable enactment for the security of the subject, the Habeas Corpus act, was passed, although it did not receive the royal assent until some years after. Great disputes then ensued between the houses, each reproaching the other for interfering with its rights; and certain members being accused of receiving bribes for their votes in the house, it was carried that a protest should be made by each member, to the effect that his vote had not been controlled by any reward or promise. This protest was entered in the books, but it does not appear to have been ever administered. At length this parliament, called 'the Long Parliament of Charles II.' (it having endured eighteen years), was dissolved January, 1679; and a contest commenced on

the opening of the new one, because the commons would not receive a speaker recommended by the court. It was in this parliament that the Habeas Corpus act, that inestimable security of the liberty of the subject from the invasion of the prerogative, received both the lords' and the king's assent—after, however, much debate. JAMES II. succeeded 1685; and upon his employing in the army, in defiance of the Test act, persons of the Romish faith, the commons addressed a remonstrance to him, whereon he dissolved the parliament—the only one summoned in his reign. After the landing of the prince of Orange, November, 1688, most of the protestant lords presented a petition to king James, imploring him to obviate an civil war by calling a parliament. The king, in his answer, expressed his anxiety to assemble a free parliament; but declined calling one, while an enemy was in the kingdom, who could make a return of nearly an hundred voices. Writs, however, were prepared, and a few of them issued; but no elections took place, the king having given orders, on his determining to take sanctuary in France, to burn such of the writs as had not been sent out; and his majesty entered a caveat against making use of those already delivered to the returning officers. There being now an actual interregnum, about ninety peers met at Westminster, and agreed on a petition to the prince of Orange, to summon a 'convention,' by circular letters; and meantime to assume the direction of public affairs. A convention was, therefore, summoned by the prince—a most extraordinary variation from the usual necessity of a king's writs; and the commons, on January 28, 1689, passed the following memorable vote: 'Resolved, that king James II., having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people, and, by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having with-

drawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby become vacant.' The convention next proceeded to consider what kind of government they should establish; and a bill was soon passed, by which they settled the crown on the prince and princess of Orange, the sole administration to remain in the prince. To this settlement of the crown, a declaration, commonly called 'the Bill of Rights,' was annexed, in which the powers of royal prerogative were more narrowly circumscribed, and more exactly defined, than in any former period of the English government. Its principal articles were well calculated to secure the freedom and power of parliament. It declared that the king has no right to suspend or dispense with laws, or the execution of laws; that all ecclesiastical-commission courts are illegal; that the levying of money for the use of the crown by prerogative, without grant of parliament, is not warranted by law; that it is the right of subjects to petition the king; that a standing army in time of peace, unless by consent of parliament, is against law; that protestant subjects may have arms for their defence; that the election of members of parliament ought to be free; that freedom of debate in parliament ought to be allowed; and that, for redress of grievances, frequent parliaments should be assembled. The next thing that was judged necessary to be done, was to turn the convention into a parliament; for it had been said, in the house of commons, that the convention not having been called by a king's writs, its acts were invalid. To effect this purpose, the commons entered into a resolution, 'that it was the opinion of the house, that the lords spiritual and temporal and commons, then sitting at Westminster, were the two houses of parliament.' A bill was also introduced by the lords to remove and prevent all questions and disputes concerning the assembling and sitting of the present parliament,

and the commons agreeing to it, the bill received the royal assent, and 'the convention' was from that time called 'the parliament.' It is singular that, though the opinion of legal men was taken in the case of the 'convention parliament' of Charles II., (when they suggested that the acts of a convention have not the force of those of an assembly called by the king's writs), such opinion was not, in the case of the Revolution, regarded. WILLIAM III. being acknowledged sovereign, the indefinite frequency of parliaments was reduced to a certainty, by an act of his first parliament after the convention one, called 'the Triennial bill;' which provided that a new parliament shall always be called within three years after the determination of the former; and, in addition to guarding against too long an intermission, the same bill enacted, that no parliament should continue longer than for three years. The acts of the convention-parliament were at the same time declared to be binding. The demise of the crown had hitherto always caused the instant dissolution of parliament; for the sovereign being considered in law as the head of the parliament, his death was deemed to cause an extinction of the whole body. But the calling of a new parliament immediately on the inauguration of the succeeding monarch, being found inconvenient, and dangers being apprehended from having no parliament in existence, in case of a disputed succession, it was now enacted, 'that the parliament in being shall continue for six months after the death of any king or queen, unless sooner prorogued or dissolved by the successor; that if the parliament be, at the time of the king's death, separated by adjournment or prorogation, it shall assemble immediately; and that if no parliament is then in being, the last parliament shall assemble, and be again a parliament.' Many of the existing regulations regarding the return of members to the commons were framed by king William's par-

liaments. One especial act requires that every freeholder shall take an oath that he is a freeholder of the county, and has freehold lands or tenements, of the yearly value of forty shillings, within it, describing where they are situated; and that he has not before polled at the election. No person under the age of twenty-one is to be admitted to vote in any election, nor is any individual to be entitled to a vote by reason of any trust or mortgage, if the trustee or mortgagee be not in actual possession, and receive the rents and profits of the estate. By the act 12 Wm. III. (the same that settled the crown, after the king and the princess Anne and the heirs of their bodies respectively, on Sophia, duchess-dowager of Hanover, and her issue, being protestants), it was declared that no alien, even though he be naturalized, shall be capable of being a member of either house or parliament: previously to the passing of it, an alien, if naturalized, *was* eligible. By the same act, no person who had any office or place of profit under the king, or pension from the crown, was to serve as a member of the house of commons. In the first parliament of queen ANNE occurred a matter of great interest to those studying the history of the British parliament; and although no legislative decision was given upon it, the question was of such vast importance, in reference to the jurisdiction of the house of commons, the rights of British electors, and the authority of the common law of England that it well deserves record. Complaints had long been made, and had increased within a few years, of great partiality and injustice in the election of members, both by sheriffs in counties, and by returning officers in boroughs. At Aylesbury, in Buckinghamshire, the return was made by four constables, and it was believed that they made a bargain with some of the candidates, and then managed the matter so as to insure a majority for the person to whom they had engaged themselves.

This object they sometimes effected by refusing, on frivolous pretences, to receive the votes of some of the electors, which would otherwise have turned the majority against the favoured candidates. When these unjust proceedings were complained of to the house of commons, the committees of privileges and elections were usually found to decide in favour of the member most agreeable to the majority of the house. In order to find a remedy for this supposed abuse, it was at length determined to institute an action at law against William White, and the other constables of Aylesbury, at the prosecution of one Matthew Ashby, who, although always admitted to vote in former elections, had been denied that privilege in the last. This suit, which was an invasion of the power hitherto assumed by the commons, to determine the rights of electors, was tried at the assizes, and it was found there by the jury, that the constables had denied the plaintiff a right of which he was undoubtedly in possession; so that they were cast with damages. But it was moved in the Queen's Bench to quash all the proceedings in the matter, since no action did lie, or ever had been brought on that account. Three of the judges were against Ashby, and argued, that if this new kind of action were allowed, it would occasion an infinite number of suits, and put all the officers concerned under great difficulties. Chief-justice Holt alone differed from the rest: 'he thought this a matter of the greatest importance, both to the whole nation in general, and to every man in particular. He made a great difference between an election of a member, and a right to vote in that election: he said that the commons were the only judges of the former, whether it was rightly managed or not, without bribery, fraud, or violence; but that the right of voting was an original right, founded either on a freehold of forty shillings a year in the county, or on burgage land, or prescription, or by

charter in a borough. These were all legal titles, and, as such, were triable in a court of law: acts of parliament were made concerning them, and by reason of these, every thing relating to those acts was triable in a court of law.' His voice being overruled by the majority of the judges, the order of the Queen's Bench was given in favour of the constables. The matter was then brought before the lords by a writ of error. After a long debate, it was carried by a great majority, to set aside the order of the Queen's Bench, and to give judgment according to the verdict at the assizes. This gave great offence to the commons, who regarding these proceedings as encroachments on their privileges, drew up resolutions, to the effect that the qualification of electors, and of persons elected, is cognisable exclusively before the commons in parliament; and that the examining and determining of the qualification or right of any elector belongs to them, where the acts of parliament give no particular direction; that whoever shall prosecute any action, which shall bring the right of electors to the determination of any other jurisdiction than that of the house of commons, except in cases specially provided for in some statute, and all attorneys, solicitors, and counsellors, prosecuting or pleading in any such case, shall be guilty of a breach of the privilege of the house. On the other hand the lords entered into opposite resolutions, vindicating their decision on the writ of error; and asserting that to declare, as the commons had done, that Ashby was guilty of a breach of privilege of the house of commons, for prosecuting an action against the constables of Aylesbury, for not receiving his vote at an election, after he had, in the known and proper methods of law, obtained a judgment in parliament for recovery of his damages, was an unprecedented attempt upon the judicature of parliament, and was, in effect, to subject the law of England to the votes of the house of commons. The resolutions likewise ac-

cused the commons of assuming a power to control the law, hinder the course of justice, and subject the property of Englishmen to their arbitrary votes. The lords ordered the lord-keeper to send a copy of the case, and of their resolutions, to all the sheriffs of England, to be communicated to all the boroughs in their counties. Relying upon this judgment of the lords, five other inhabitants of Aylesbury, brought their action against the constables, for refusing their votes; and this the house of commons considering a high contempt of their authority, they sent for those five men, and committed them to Newgate. A motion was made in the Queen's Bench for a writ of habeas-corpus. The judges differed as before; three were of opinion that the commons were the proper judges of their own privileges; but Holt held that their authority was circumscribed by law. Holt's judgment being again overruled by a majority, the prisoners were remanded. Upon this two of them, Paty and Oviat, moved for a writ of error, to bring the cause before the lords; which was only to be obtained by petitioning the queen that the judgment of the court of Queen's Bench might be brought before her majesty in parliament. The commons, alarmed at these petitions, presented an address to her majesty, praying her not to grant a writ of error, which would subvert the privileges of the commons of England. The judges having been consulted on the point, ten of them were of opinion that, in civil matters, a petition for a writ of error was a petition of right, not of grace. The commons having received an evasive answer to their address, proceeded to a still further extremity, by voting that Mr. Page, and others, in pleading upon the return of the habeas-corpus, on behalf of the five prisoners committed by the house, were guilty of a breach of privilege; and those gentlemen were ordered to be taken into custody. As they had reason to fear that the queen would

grant writs of error, whereby the five Aylesbury men might be discharged from their imprisonment, they ordered them to be removed from Newgate, and taken into the custody of their sergeant-at-arms; which order was executed at midnight, with such circumstances of severity and terror, as have seldom been exercised towards the greatest offenders. The prisoners petitioned the house of lords for relief; and that house voted several resolutions in their behalf. The lords declared 'that the commons, in committing those persons to Newgate, had assumed to themselves alone a legislative authority, by pretending to attribute the force of a law to their declaration; had claimed a jurisdiction not warranted by the constitution; had assumed a new privilege, to which they could have no title by the laws and customs of parliament; and had thereby, as far as in them lay, subjected the rights of Englishmen, and the freedom of their persons, to their votes. That every Englishman, who is imprisoned by any authority whatsoever, has an undoubted right to apply for and obtain, by his agents or friends, a writ of habeas-corpus, in order to procure his liberty by due course of law. That for the house of commons to censure and punish any person for assisting a prisoner to obtain a writ of habeas-corpus, or to deter men from pleading upon it, was an attempt of dangerous tendency, a breach of the many good statutes provided for the liberty of the subject, and of pernicious example, by denying the necessary assistance to the prisoner, upon a commitment of the house of commons, which had ever been allowed upon all commitments by any authority whatsoever. And that a writ of error is a writ of right, and ought not to be denied to the subject when duly applied for, though at the request of either house of parliament; the denial thereof being an obstruction of justice contrary to Magna Charta.' The sergeant-at-arms having been served with writs of habeas-

corpus, the house of commons nevertheless directed him to make no return to them; and they recorded a resolution, 'that no commoner of England, committed by the house of commons for breach of privilege, or contempt of that house, ought, by any writ of habeas-corpus, to be made to appear in any other place, or before any other judicature, during the session of parliament, wherein such person was so committed.' This violent controversy was terminated by the queen's proroguing parliament; on which the prisoners were, as a matter of course, released. But previously to the prorogation, the queen declared, in answer to an address of the lords, that she should have granted the writs of error, had not the speedy termination of the session superseded the necessity of that proceeding. The act of union of the English and Scottish parliaments having received the royal assent on March 6th, 1707, the first parliament of Great Britain met on October 23d, 1707. By a decision of the commons, 1708, the eldest sons of Scottish peers were rendered incapable of sitting in parliament as representatives for Scotland; and by the act, 9 Anne, the landed qualification of members is settled. It is therein enacted that every knight of a shire shall have a clear estate of freehold or copyhold, to the value of 600*l.* per annum, and every citizen and burgess to the value of 300*l.*; except the eldest sons of peers, and of persons qualified to be knights of shires, and except the members for the two universities. One of the earliest acts of GEORGE I. was the 'septennial act,' 1716, by which the duration of a parliament, which had been elected for three years, was by itself prolonged for an additional period of four years; and by which it was enacted that parliaments in future should continue for seven years, to be computed from the day appointed for their meeting by the writ of summons, unless dissolved by the king before the expiration of that period. This memorable bill had its origin in

a wish to support the house of Brunswick against the claim of the rejected Stuarts; the seven years' duration of the then house of commons, favourable as it was to the Hanoverian succession, being likely to secure the stability of the new family. The period when the power was thus assumed by the commons, though a delegated body, of lengthening their own period of sitting, may be regarded as forming one of the principal epochs in the history of parliament; it having been considered by high authorities as the era of the emancipation of the British house of commons from its former dependence on the crown and the lords. In the first parliament of GEORGE II., the printer of a Gloucester journal was made to apologise by deputy, for having reported in a newspaper some of the commons' proceedings; and it was then resolved, 'that it is an indignity to, and a breach of the privilege of the house, for any person to presume to give, in written or printed newspapers, any account of the debates, and that, upon discovery of the authors of such printed reports, the house will proceed against them with the utmost severity.' In this parliament was passed the statute against bribery and corruption in the election of members, which originated in the house of commons, and was sent back by the lords, with some amendments, to enforce that excellent law, by enhancing the penalty upon a corrupt voter, party, or agent, in an election for a member of parliament, from 50*l.* to 500*l.*, and by other provisions. Questions respecting the validity of votes were settled; and in 1734 the privilege of franking letters, which had been claimed by the commons for its members so far back as 1660, was for the first time allowed by the post-office farmers. It appeared that when the commons passed the bill, granting the post-office revenue to Charles II., they annexed to it a clause, reserving to themselves the privilege of franking; but when

that bill was carried to the upper house, the lords, offended at there being no such provision made for themselves, passed the bill without the clause annexed. The resolution of the house, which now settled its right to the privilege of franking, ran thus: 'That it is the opinion of the house, that the privilege of franking letters by the knights, citizens, and burgesses, chosen to represent the commons in parliament, began with the erecting of a post-office within this kingdom, by act of parliament; and that all letters, not exceeding two ounces, signed by the proper hand of, or directed to, any member of the house, during every session of parliament (and forty days before, and forty days after, every summons or prorogation), ought to be carried and delivered freely and safely from all parts of Great Britain and Ireland, without any charge of postage.' In 1738, another order was issued by the commons, to prevent the publication of its debates; but this only tempted the compilers of periodical publications to adopt a covert method of giving them, which made it more easy to falsify them; and it is a well-known fact that, after this period, the accounts became less authentic than before. The 'Gentleman's' and the 'London' Magazines were the principal vehicles of the parliamentary debates: the former published the 'Debates in the Senate of Lilliput,' and the latter professed to give a journal of the proceedings and debates of 'a political club,' of which the members had Roman appellations: each miscellany afterwards explained these fictitious titles in advertisements affixed to the respective volumes. The printing of the journals of the commons was first ordered, 1742; from which time to the present day, an exact century, the practice has been continued. In the first parliament of GEORGE III., a standing order against the admission of strangers was strictly enforced in both houses; and the sergeant-at-arms of the house of commons was ordered

to take into custody, from time to time, any stranger whom he might see in the house or gallery while the house was sitting. In 1763 occurred the affair of Mr. Wilkes, member for Aylesbury, connected with his invective against the king's speech, published in the 'North Briton.' In the history of king George's reign, and in the memoir of Mr. Wilkes, are given the main particulars. The Grenville act (so called, because introduced by Mr. George Grenville) for regulating the trial of controverted elections, was passed, 1770. By it the form and manner of election petitions was settled; and by its provisions a select committee must be chosen on the presentation of each petition, to try its merits. The mode of choosing election-committees is by ballot, as follows:—one hundred members at least being present, their names are written on small pieces of paper, rolled up, and deposited in six urns, from each of which alternately a name is then drawn, until the number of twenty-five is completed: after this, the petitioner and sitting member each strike six from the number. To the remaining thirteen one is added at the discretionary nomination of each party, and the whole fifteen are then sworn, like an ordinary jury, 'well and truly to try the matter of the petition, and true judgment to give, according to the evidence.' No member above the age of sixty is to be drawn; and in order to secure the attendance of one hundred members on the day appointed for balloting, the house is restrained from proceeding in any business, until the balloting is concluded. This act was a great improvement upon the old method of determining election disputes by the vote of the whole house, which was usually influenced rather by party views than by the real merits of the case; and it has been characterized as one of the noblest works for the honour of the house of commons, and the security of the constitution, that was ever devised by any minister or statesman. The

privilege of exemption from arrest, enjoyed since the earliest period of our history by the servants of members of both houses of parliament, was abolished, 1770, by an act which abrogates all privileges of parliament whereby the ordinary course of justice was obstructed. It enacts that any suit may at any time be brought, against any peer or member of parliament, their servants, or any other person entitled to privilege of parliament, which shall not be impeached or delayed by pretence of any such privilege; except that a member of the house of commons shall not thereby be subjected to any arrest or imprisonment. The right assumed by parliament of prohibiting the publication of their proceedings, was once more strongly contested in the year 1771, and was, on that occasion, so feebly supported, that it has ever since existed only in name. A complaint having been made against two printers, Thompson and Wheble, for inserting the debates in their respective journals, they were ordered to attend, but declined complying, although repeatedly summoned. The serjeant-at-arms was then directed to take them into custody, which he was unable to do, as they had absconded. On the address of the commons to the king, a proclamation, offering a reward, was issued for their apprehension; and under this, Wheble was arrested, and brought before Mr. Wilkes, who had been elected alderman for the city of London, in consequence of the popularity of his conduct respecting the Middlesex election. Mr. Wilkes discharged the prisoner, and even bound him over in a recognizance to prosecute his captor for an assault and false imprisonment. Thompson was in like manner discharged by Alderman Oliver. The printer of the 'London Evening Post,' having been guilty of an offence similar to that of Thompson and Wheble, was afterwards taken into custody by a messenger of the house of commons; whereupon he sent immediately for a constable,

who carried them before the lord mayor, and aldermen Wilkes and Oliver, at the Mansion-house, by whom the printer was discharged, and the messenger compelled to give bail to answer a charge of assault and false imprisonment. The house then committed the lord mayor and alderman Oliver to the Tower. Alderman Wilkes, having been sent for, refused to comply, unless the summons should direct him to attend 'in his place, as member for Middlesex,' to which he had been several times elected. The house, unwilling to involve itself with Mr. Wilkes, proceeded no farther in his case; but the other two city magistrates remained in the Tower until the close of the session. In a few years after, the debates of both houses regularly appeared, with the names of the speakers, in every respectable newspaper; and the right of the public to this very valuable insight into the doings of their representatives in the commons, has never since been questioned. About this time it was determined that persons called to the bar of the house to be reprimanded for any offence, should not be required to kneel as heretofore. Just after the last-named change, a curious disagreement occurred between the two houses, insomuch that neither would permit members of the other to be present during its debates. The exclusive right possessed by the commons of regulating grants of money, guarded by them with a jealous eye, was asserted in an unusual manner in 1772, on the occasion of the lords making an alteration in a corn-bill, to the effect that no bounty should be paid upon exported corn; which amendment was unanimously declared an invasion of the known privileges of the lower house, and the bill was thrown out with marks of great indignity; the speaker first tossing it over the table, and several members afterwards kicking it as they went out. The act of legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland, received the royal assent July 2, 1800;

and the united parliament of the three kingdoms has thenceforth borne the title of 'the Imperial Parliament.' The first imperial parliament of Great Britain and Ireland met January 22, 1801; and Mr. John Horne Tooke, a person in priests' orders, having been elected for Old Sarum, and returned thereto, a motion was made for incapacitating him; pursuant to which a committee was appointed to examine the journals of the house and the records of parliament, for precedents respecting the eligibility of persons in holy orders. In the report, the committee stated that, previously to the reign of Henry VI. there appeared five instances in which the addition 'clericus,' or clerk, had been annexed to the names of members returned to serve in parliament; but, after the eighth year of that reign, only one clergyman, John Robson, appeared to have been returned; and his election was declared void in the eighteenth of James I. The motion for the expulsion of Mr. Horne Tooke was negatived; but in order to obviate all doubts, a bill was brought in, and afterwards passed into a law, to prevent any person, who shall have been ordained a priest or deacon, from sitting in any future parliament; the operation of the law having been postponed, in consequence of a feeling of delicacy towards the individual whose case had given rise to the discussion. In February, 1810, one John Gale Jones, the manager of a debating society, was committed to Newgate for having published a placard, which the commons pronounced to be a gross breach of their privileges. On the 12th of March, sir Francis Burdett made a motion for the discharge of Jones, which was negatived: he printed the arguments used by him on this occasion, in 'Cobbett's Weekly Register,' and introduced them by a letter to his constituents, denying the power of the house of commons 'to imprison the people of England;' and for this he was committed to the Tower on the 9th of April, by virtue

of a warrant issued by the speaker, and was confined there until the rising of parliament. In a subsequent parliament of George III. (anno 52) it was enacted, that any member who shall be declared a bankrupt, and shall not pay his debts in full within twelve months from the issuing of the commission of bankruptcy, shall be incapable of sitting and voting in the house, unless within the said period such commission shall be superseded. It was in the latter sessions of this reign that Joseph Hunt, treasurer of the ordnance, for misapplying the public money, Benjamin Walsh, for a breach of trust in his business of stock-broker, and lord Cochrane, for his concern in a fraudulent conspiracy to raise the price of the public funds, were severally deprived of their seat in the commons. In the first parliament of GEORGE IV., it was enacted that, for the better administration of the office of a justice of peace in and near the metropolis, no such justice should be capable of electing a member of parliament, or have the privilege of voting for the return of a member thereto. In 1828 the corporation and test acts were repealed, to gratify the dissenters; and on Mr. Joseph Pease, a quaker, being elected member for the southern division of the county of Durham, his affirmation was taken instead of the usual oath required of every member, prior to taking his seat in the commons. As an equivalent to the Roman Catholics for this boon to the dissenters, an act was passed for their emancipation from the penal laws that had so long withheld from them many of the privileges of British subjects, in the ensuing year. The language of the 'catholic relief bill' is thus liberally worded: 'Whereas, by various acts, certain restraints and disabilities are imposed on Roman Catholics, to which other subjects are not liable, and it is expedient that the same be henceforth discontinued, and whereas certain oaths and declarations, commonly called 'the

Declaration against Transubstantiation and the Invocation of Saints, and the sacrifice of the mass, as practised in the Church of Rome,' are required to be made and subscribed, as qualifications for sitting and voting in parliament, and for the enjoyment of certain offices, franchises, and civil rights; it is enacted that, from and after the commencement of this act, all such parts of the said acts as require the said declarations, or either of them, to be made or subscribed by any of his majesty's subjects, be repealed.' Persons professing the Roman catholic religion, elected to be members of parliament, are to take, instead of the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, a single oath not inconsistent with their religious scriptures, which is to be taken by each peer and member of the house of commons before taking his seat. Every person taking this oath swears that he will defend, to the utmost of his power, the settlement of property within this realm, as established by the laws; and thereby disclaims, disavows, and solemnly abjures any intention to subvert the present church establishment, as settled by law within this realm; and solemnly swears that he will never exercise any privilege to which he is or may become entitled, to disturb or weaken the protestant religion, or protestant government, in the United Kingdom. By the same act, Roman Catholics are permitted to vote at elections for England and for Ireland, and also to vote at the election of representative peers of Scotland, and to be elected such representative peers. Roman Catholics in Scotland may elect and be elected members to serve in parliament for Scotland, and be enrolled as freeholders in any shire or stewartry in that country; and be chosen commissioners or delegates for choosing burghs to serve in parliament for any districts of burghs in Scotland, they taking the oath prescribed by the act, instead of the oaths of allegiance and abjuration before by law appointed.

They may also be members of lay corporations, and may hold any office therein, and vote in any corporate election or proceeding.

Our sketch of parliamentary history is here brought to a close; and it only requires a reference to pages 376, 404, and 486 of the present volume, to be made as complete as the necessary limits of such a work will permit.

FREQUENCY OF WRECKS, 1843.—

On January 13th, 1843, a furious gale of wind drove the ship *Conqueror*, when in the channel, on the French coast. The vessel was homeward bound to London from India, and had on board numerous most respectable persons, some with their entire families. The whole, together with the captain (Green) and crew were lost, save a boy belonging to the latter—in all ninety souls. During the succeeding six weeks, violent winds and squalls continuing, no less than 453 other vessels, small and great, were wrecked on the coasts of France, England, Scotland, and Ireland, involving a loss, in value of vessels and cargoes, of 900,000*l.*, to the great necessary detriment of Lloyd's ship-insurance establishment. On the 7th of April, at midnight, the Royal Mail Steam-packet Company's ship, *Solway*, struck on the Baldargo reef, twenty miles west of Corunna, and in less than twenty-five minutes sank. The crew and passengers amounted to ninety-seven, of whom seventeen passengers, the captain, surgeon, a midshipman, and eight of the crew, met an instant death. A Mr. and Mrs. Fitzjames, their four children, and servant, the rev. Mr. Bascumb, of Barbadoes, and other well-connected persons, fell a sacrifice; and but for security offered by a new species of boat, called 'the paddle-box boat,' a sort of life-boat, invented by captain George Smith, R. N., the whole, both passengers and crew, must have been lost. Captain Smith's boat, on occasion of the wreck of the *Isis*, some little time back, saved more than 100 persons,

during a severe gale of wind, and a heavy sea, wherein no common boat could live; and now that full 150 lives have been saved by the invention, we think that no vessel should be allowed to go to sea without a sufficiency of such boats. The captain, Duncan, who was unhappily among the drowned, had nobly refused to leave the vessel, while one other living person remained on board.

REVOLUTION IN ST. DOMINGO.—It was reported, at the period of the recent earthquake in the island of Hispaniola (page 539), that president Boyer had been assassinated during an insurrection of the people. But that account, although extensively circulated and believed, was incorrect; and it seems that the revolt which had then commenced against his government, proceeded without any very strong demonstration until March 17th (1843), when the president and thirty-two of his adherents sought shelter from their enemies on board one of her Britannic majesty's ships, and were safely conveyed to Jamaica. The revolution thus effected was a bloodless one; and at the head of the opponents of M. Boyer was the senator Dumeille, the representative of the province of Aux Cayes, who, on five different occasions, had been forcibly expelled the senate chamber at the point of the bayonet, and on each occasion had been triumphantly re-elected by his original constituents. Under the apprehension of measures of a still more despotic character than the president had hitherto adopted to quell his turbulence, it appears that Dumeille had addressed himself to the regiment of artillery stationed at Aux Cayes, and that he had been instantly responded to by the whole body. The feelings of the bulk of the population, too, were so strongly in his favour, that, in the course of a few days after his last expulsion from the senate, he found himself at the head of 6000 men, a force with which he was preparing to march on the

capital. In the meantime, with the view of persuading his fellow-citizens that he was not actuated by motives of personal ambition, he proposed to M. Beaugillard, the governor of Aux Cayes, who has been very generally regarded for the last ten or twelve years as the probable successor of M. Boyer in the presidency, to declare the office vacant, and to consent to be himself proclaimed 'provisional president,' until the senate could be assembled to complete his election by the forms which the Haytian con-

stitution prescribes. M. Beaugillard, although he refused compliance, was understood not to look with disfavour on the armed resistance which was offered to the 'unconstitutional' proceedings of Boyer; but he did not think the moment had yet arrived for placing himself at the head of the revolutionary movement. In all probability, however, the embarkation of the president and his partisans for Jamaica will have proved the signal for explicitly declaring himself his successor.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS PHILIPPE I.—This prince (son of the duke of Orleans, who, in the breaking out of the Revolution, assumed the title of M. Egalité to please the Jacobins, though he soon after terminated his life on the scaffold) received his early education from the celebrated madame de Genlis, and at sixteen entered the army, with the title of duc de Chartres. Upon declaring in favour of general Dumouriez when he opposed the Convention, he was compelled to take refuge in Switzerland; where for a time he maintained himself as a teacher of history, geography, and mathematics, in the college of Reichemann. Thence he crossed to America, and for many years passed a wandering life in the New World with his brothers; and them he lost by death, soon after his settlement at Twickenham, in England, 1803. On the restoration of the Bourbons, 1814, he returned to France; and he lived in the vicinity of Paris, until the revolution of 1830 deposed his kinsman, Charles X., and placed him on the throne. The trial of the obnoxious ministers of Charles took place immediately on the accession of Louis Philippe; and they were sent in perpetual exile to the fortress of Ham, in Picardy. In 1832 a serious insurrection in the southern provinces, raised by the widow of the duc de Berri in favour of her son, was suppressed by the vigilance of Louis Philippe (see *In-*

surrection of Duchess de Berri); and various attempts, on the part of both Buonapartists and Jacobins, to restore the republic, disturbed his reign for several years. His life even was more than once attempted; on the first occasion by 'an infernal machine,' as it was termed, which, although it exploded, and did much damage to the house in which it had been placed, failed in its murderous projector's object of striking the royal carriage as it passed. The abolition of the law of primogeniture was one of the first acts of the two chambers; a suicidal measure, which, while fatal as it was intended to be to aristocratical power, will hereafter, by the bar which it opposes to the accumulation of capital, more effectually lower the pride of the French, than the ravages of their country by either wars or revolutions have ever been enabled to do. At the suggestion of many influential persons, English as well as French; the imprisoned ministers of Charles X. were released, 1840, being greatly injured in health by their confinement, especially prince Polignac. But that the spirit of revolution was yet by no means laid, was evident by the raising of a column in Paris, which was (August, 1840) solemnly inaugurated, in memory of the victims of the revolution of July, 1830. Full 100,000 of the national guard were under arms, to preserve peace; and the bodies of the victims, together

with those of *their* victims, the Swiss guards, who had all been thrown into the same grave, were exhumed from their place in front of the Louvre, and conveyed in one 'monstre' hearse (fifty coffins with ten bodies in each), drawn by twenty-four black horses, to the vault under the column.

In a few days after this ceremony had been performed, the attention of the French was drawn to a still more extraordinary affair. Louis Napoleon, son of the ex-king of Holland, and nephew of Napoleon 'le grand,' landed from England at Wimereaux, near Boulogne, with sixty followers in arms, and hoisted a flag, surmounted with the well-known eagle, on the column erected to commemorate the expedition against England. A live eagle, trained for the purpose, was to have flown from the adventurer's ship, and settled on the column; but the bird ominously took its flight in another direction, and spared the Buonapartists 'a scene,' which might have terminated in their favour. After in vain harassing the soldiers at the barracks of Boulogne, and discharging a pistol or two at the commandant, the whole party retreated to their steam-ship, which, however, had been seized by the douaniers; and Louis Napoleon and his chief adherents were all immersed in the sea, through the capsizing of a boat in which they attempted to escape. Louis himself, unable to swim, clung to a buoy, whence he was taken by the douaniers, and, with the wounded general Montholon, conveyed, first to the Conciergerie at Boulogne, and then to the castle of Ham, to await his trial by the chamber of peers, which soon awarded him and his aged companion—one of his uncle's old retainers—an incarceration for life in the fortress of Ham. At the same juncture, the prince de Joinville, one of Louis Philippe's sons, sailed in the frigate, *La Belle Poule*, for St. Helena, to bring over the remains of Napoleon, recently given up to his government by queen Victoria. The vessel was

painted black, the crew dressed in mourning, the centre of the frigate fitted up with black velvet as a chapel, and the *tout ensemble* made, in true Gallic fashion, to indicate the solemn service in which both ship and crew were engaged.

The *Belle Poule* reached St. Helena safely; and the disinterment took place in the night of October, 15, 1840. 'When we arrived (says the official account) at the place called Napoleon's Valley, we found the tomb guarded by a detachment of the 91st regiment of English infantry, commanded by lieutenant Barney. The operations were commenced in the most profound silence, between midnight and one in the morning. We first caused the iron railing, which surrounded the tomb, to be removed; we then uncovered the surface, composed of three ranges of mason-work, fixed into another foundation of mason-work. This first operation was concluded at half-past one o'clock. A rectangular wall then presented itself, forming, as we afterwards found, the four sides of a vault, eleven feet deep, eight feet long, and four feet eight inches wide. This vault was entirely filled with clay; and after having moved the clay, we came to a bed of Roman cement, ten feet deep, which it took four hours and a half's labour to remove. Immediately under this bed, was a covering of mason-work, six feet long, three wide, and five deep, forming the covering of the sarcophagus. The mason-work having been carefully removed, every thing was ready at half-past nine, to open the sarcophagus. Dr. Guillard then purified the tomb by sprinkling chloride of lime over it. As soon as the flag which covered the coffin was removed, by order of the English commissioner, and that the coffin was discovered, all present took off their hats; and the abbé Coque-reau sprinkled holy water, and recited the 'De Profundis.' The commissioners then descended to examine the coffin, which was found quite

perfect, except a small portion of the lower part ; and an express was sent to the governor, to announce the progress of the works. The coffin was then raised, according to the rites of the catholic church, and placed under a tent prepared to receive it; and at eleven, the exterior wooden coffin being carefully removed, a leaden coffin was discovered in good preservation. The governor, accompanied by the officers of his staff, having then arrived at the tent, the upper part of the lead coffin was removed, and another wooden coffin appeared. The cover of the third coffin having been removed, a tin ornament, slightly rusted, was seen, which was removed, and a white satin sheet was perceived, which was removed with the greatest precaution by the doctor,—and Napoleon's body was exposed to view.' His features were so little changed, that his face was recognised by those who had known him when alive. The different articles which had been deposited in the coffin were found exactly as they had been placed. The hands were singularly well preserved. The uniform, the orders, the hat, were very little changed. His entire person presented the appearance of one lately interred. 'At this solemn moment, at the sight of the easily recognised remains (writes the prince de Joinville, who however was not present at the scene,) of him who had done so much for the glory of France, the emotion was deep and unanimous.' The body was not exposed to the external air longer than two minutes at the most, which were necessary for the surgeon to take measures to prevent any further alteration ; the first wooden coffin was then closed, and the leaden coffin being soldered over it, the whole was put into a new ebony coffin brought from Paris ; the latter was then locked, and the key handed to the French commissioner, who replied that he was ready to accept the remains in the name of his government, and to accompany them to James-

town, where the prince de Joinville was waiting to conduct them to France.' With extraordinary pomp of procession, the body was conveyed on a splendid car to the shore, amidst minute guns, and British soldiers with their arms reversed ; and when received on board the *Belle Poule*, it was placed on the quarter-deck, now converted into a '*chapelle ardente*.' The frigate reached Cherbourg again Nov. 30 ; and when the steamboat to which the body was there removed, passed Havre, on its course into the Seine, the coffin was seen from the shore, lying in state in another '*chapelle ardente*.' The landing of the '*precious relics of France's glory*' took place at Courbevoic, on the banks of the Seine, Dec. 15th, in the presence of a vast multitude of spectators, and, amidst their deafening cheers. The coffin being placed upon a magnificent funeral-car, a brilliant procession of mingled military and civil personages then began toward the capital ; all the towns and villages in the route having made splendid preparations of triumphal arches, &c., to welcome the return of their emperor, even though a corpse. Amid clamorous and somewhat paradoxical shouts of '*Vive l'Empereur* !' ('*Vive le Roi* !' was quite out of the question on that day), the body arrived at its place of sepulture in the *Hôpital des Invalides* ; where the chapel had been demolished, to provide the remains a more sumptuous mausoleum in a half-finished edifice. Ushered into its last abode by the prince de Joinville as chief mourner, and received by king Louis Philippe 'in the name of France,' a grand ceremonial ensued, with all the pomp of catholic rites ; and Mozart's requiem, and other imposing dirges, were sung by the first vocalists in Europe. Happily for France, the day passed off without an *emeute*, much as the silly medical students of Paris had laboured to effect one ; and we trust that king Louis Philippe has insured, by the admirable

tact he displayed on the trying occasion, at least a few years' term of tranquillity for his volatile citizens.

While the public mind was thus engaged, the British arms in Syria everywhere prevailed; and the ministry of M. Thiers, which, on radical principles, had clamorously advocated a war with England, for her interference to deprive Mehemet Ali of Egypt of his usurpations without the consent of France, as one of the great allied powers, was compelled to give way to the pacific party of M. Guizot. Even as it was, a treaty of commerce, which was only waiting for signature, and which, by mutual concession between England and France, would have given great extension to English cutlery, earthenware, and woven-goods trades, was summarily abandoned. Louis Philippe is believed to have been gratified by the change of ministers, though he was unable to put a stop to the fortifying of Paris; a work which the war-cabinet had begun, and which had the mischievous effect of calling for 'an armed peace' throughout Europe, to the great and needless cost of the respective countries. The plea on the part of the French for spending in the end thirty millions on fortifications in time of peace, was the declining influence of the English whig ministry; which, after fostering the democratic principle in Spain, Belgium, and France, had been compelled, by the returning ascendancy of toryism, to abandon the cause of a rebellious pacha, and thus leave the Parisian Jacobins to the mercy of an aristocracy, whose immolation they had planned. While, therefore, in the northern states, and in Germany, armies of enormous magnitude had sprung up, to act as a barrier against the popular deluge, half a million of money had been already expended in France, to protect the mad plunges of the democracy, and to confirm its power. The continent meanwhile had become, in consequence, an universal camp; and the

peaceable progress of trade and commerce was suspended in every European state. Happily Louis Philippe and his new ministry (on witnessing the return of tory ascendancy in England, on the dissolution of the whig ministry) prevailed in allaying the agitation for restoring a military government; the army was reduced from 433,000 to 300,000 men; and the fortifications were, by an ordinance, to be extended no further.

The suspension of the fortifications, the interference of the cabinet in Spanish affairs (Don Carlos becoming an honourable prisoner in France, and his rival, queen Christina, being received as an injured sovereign at the Parisian court), and the suppression of the anarchical spirit of the populace of the provincial great towns, which had been fomented by the atrocious licence of the public press, were the principal occurrences in France at the close of 1841.

In April 1842 died M. Humann, the minister of finance, who had done much, during his short career, to consolidate the property of the kingdom. So sensibly were his services felt, that a magnificent public funeral, at which the royal family, all the peers, and the most distinguished generals and officers of state attended, was given to his remains. He was in the act of sealing some official papers, when death suddenly seized him. On Sunday, the 15th of May, occurred a frightful accident, which, though as usual made an affair of momentary *national* concern by our mercurial neighbours, soon came to be regarded simply as 'une chose malheureuse' by the mass of the public. The facts were these. On Sunday, May 1st (according to a practice, or at least permission, of the Romish church, much to be regretted, as usually desecrating the sabbath, however such result is unintended), the king's fete-day had been celebrated in Paris; and his majesty, in return, with a view to afford the population of the capital an especial treat, allowed illuminations, fireworks,

&c., to be exhibited on a grand scale at St. Germain and Versailles, on the 15th. To Versailles there are two railroads; and the more direct one of these, having on it an unusual number of carriages drawn by two engines, one behind the other, was conveying back the Parisians between five and six in the evening, when the leading engine broke down. The consequences were the rushing of the second machine over the fallen one, the pulling of the carriages that followed off the rails, and the customary destruction of both conveyances and passengers. The scene on the line, as far as Meudon, beggared all description. A dense volume of smoke and large flames first met the view. Carriages were rolling over the rails; from five to six hundred voices called shriekingly for aid; and from the villages and from the valleys the population poured forth dismayed, not knowing where or how to render assistance. The flames, it was soon found, were coming from the carriages themselves, seven of which, having been newly painted, had been ignited by the engines, and were burning furiously, consuming the locked-up travellers! No less than forty persons were in each conveyance; and only the young and active, and not all of those, could escape at the small windows. In one instance, a mother threw out her infant upon the grass, and perished horribly with her husband.

But if France, in common with other 'catholic' countries, allow of Sunday amusements, she is reforming in the main in matters of religion. A great revolution has in truth occurred within a dozen years. Twelve years since, on visiting Paris, Englishmen were forcibly struck by the impiety, blasphemy, and bad taste, which marked the conversation in public and private. During the empire, irreligion had made the most extraordinary progress it is possible to conceive. At all the institutions, the Polytechnic school for example, ridicule of the Deity and of revealed

religion appeared to have been more strongly inculcated than any branch of learning or science. At all convivial meetings, the songs of Beranger, and others equally impious, without his poetry to recommend them, were in the mouths of all. *Tout cela est changé maintenant.* Not only are we now spared the disgust which the revolting language of the cafés and streets supplied, but the churches are crowded on holy days, both by women, as formerly, and by men also, of all ages and all classes; and not only do they frequent the church, but the sacraments. Even in the Polytechnic School this change is remarkable: not only are the students not prone to infidelity and impiety, but they are constantly seen at divine service. Queen Marie Amelie, the consort of Louis Philippe, is the worker of such great good. She has made religion the fashion, by her intreaties, her charities, her bright example; and the clergy, pursuing the mild course of persuasion, in lieu of that adopted during the sway of Charles X., wherein threats of papal censures and punishments were resorted to, have been able to soften hearts nurtured in unbelief, or indurated by the godless doings of the men of the revolution. The archbishop of Paris went to compliment the king on his birth-day, 1842, not on the Sunday (the right day), but on the day preceding; and apologizing for the circumstance, he intreated him to put an end to that desecration of the sabbath, which has ever been the disgrace of Christian France.

A most grievous calamity befel the royal house on July 13, 1842. Ferdinand Philippe, duc d'Orleans, the king's eldest son, and properly Dauphin, while on his way to Neuilly, to take leave of his royal parents, prior to his entrance on the command of the large army on the Marne, was killed by jumping from his carriage, on seeing his horses had become unmanageable. The most affecting scene followed. The prince,

on being taken up nearly lifeless, was conveyed into a grocer's house at the spot of the accident; and in a few minutes came thither on foot, from the palace at Neuilly, first the queen, then the king, princes, princesses, and great generals and officers of the empire—only, alas! to see the poor duke die, after lying senseless several hours. When he had expired, the afflicted Louis Philippe drew the queen into an adjoining room, where, in reply to the marshals' and ministers' intreaties that her majesty would be consoled, she could only exclaim, amid her tears, 'What a dreadful misfortune has fallen upon our family; but how much greater is it for France!' The body of the prince, covered by a white sheet, was then placed upon a bier, and carried by four non-commissioned officers of the 17th Light Infantry, followed by all the royal mourners on foot. The cavalcade proceeded along the Avenue de Sablonville, and entering the royal park, traversed its whole length to the chapel; part of the way being lined by the soldiers of the 17th, who had shared with the prince-royal in all the dangers of the passage of the Iron gates, and the heights of Mouzaia, in Africa, and who now audibly wept for their intrepid but ever mild commander, thus cut off in his thirty-second year. On reaching the chapel, their majesties, with the princes and princesses, after prostrating themselves at the altar, left their beloved child and brother under the guardianship of Him to whose decrees they humbly bowed, and were conveyed in their carriages back to Neuilly. On the 4th of August, the remains of the duke were deposited in the family vault of the Orleans family, at Dreux; prior to which (on the 3rd) a most splendid mass was performed in Nôtre Dame for the repose of his soul. The misfortune is great both for the royal house and France, as far as human foresight can augur; and it is only to be hoped that God may spare the life of Louis

Philippe, so as to shorten any attempt at a regency,—the son and heir of the deceased prince being, at the moment of his parent's decease, an infant of four years. A new election for deputies was going on at the period of the dreadful accident, with the expectance of the radical party that they should be able to turn out the tory ministry, and restore M. Thiers; but the result was, on the contrary, highly favourable to the lovers of order, there being a very marked display, in every province, of sympathy with the royal house. And more than this, M. Thiers declared himself no longer the leader of the *gauche* side, and actually joined the party he had ever before opposed.

At the close of 1842 much anxiety prevailed regarding the expense and burden to the nation of the colony of Algiers. No less than 24,000 sick were found to be in its military hospitals; and within the preceding twelve years, Africa had consumed 70,000 French soldiers, the least part of whom had fallen under the balls of the Arabs. The greater portion had perished through the influence of a burning sun by day, of piercing frosts by night, and of pestilential marshes, rife with fevers of the most destructive kinds. At this juncture a suspicious refusal to enter into any new treaty with England, confirmatory of 'the right of search,' distinguished the French cabinet. The national contract to submit to the right of search, mutually, in order to satisfy all parties that slaves were not on board their ships, was proposed by England, and entered into respectively by Spain, Portugal, Russia, Prussia, France, and even by the United States of America, and Brazil; and, with the exception of France, all the covenanting parties have shown themselves willing to abolish the trade in slaves, both by respecting the existing treaties, and by agreeing to renew them when they should have expired. The coldness of France, therefore, was naturally considered

to arise from her harass regarding Algeria; to retain which at the least cost, she is said to have aimed at forming a navy in the Mediterranean, so as to rival the British in that sea, and thereby to carry out her desigus upon Syria and Egypt, the recent arrangement of whose affairs by the other allied powers, she will not probably for years forgive.

The character of Louis Philippe necessarily stands high. Amid extraordinary difficulties, he has not only preserved his throne, but has sensibly ameliorated the feelings and condition of his fickle and turbulent people. To bring back a nation, bred in military habits, to a love of the peaceful arts, was no very easy task; and to instil religious sentiments into minds nurtured in worse than savage heathenism—in a proud apostacy from the light of Christianity—was a still harder labour. Yet in both instances has this enlightened monarch seen his virtuous efforts singularly productive of success. Through his ancestress, the second wife of Philippe, duc d'Orleans, who was a granddaughter of the princess Elizabeth of England, king Louis Philippe claims descent from the said Elizabeth's eldest son; and our present gracious queen descends from the same princess's youngest daughter. The exiled royal family of France resides at Goritz, in the Austrian territory. Its head, the duc d'Angoulême, the ex-dauphin, (being eldest son of the late Charles X.,) is regarded by his partisans as Louis XIX.; though he resigned his claim to the throne, in favour of his nephew, the duc de Bordeaux, son of his murdered brother, the duc de Berri, 1830. The duc d'Angoulême's consort is his cousin, the princess Marie-Thérèse, daughter of Louis XVI., who passed through all the horrors of the bloody revolution, and was fifteen years old when her parents fell a prey thereto. The duc de Bordeaux (born 1820) is styled Henri V. by the friends to the ancient dynasty.

AUSTRIA UNDER FERDINAND I.—

This prince succeeded his father, Francis I., 1835, being then in his 43d year, and having been some time married to Maria Anna, daughter of the king of Sardinia. Seated in the heart of Europe, the empire of Austria, in the time of a profound peace, has as little concern with foreign nations, as any much less important state; and almost the only transaction we have to notice, is her assistance to England, according to the compact of the great alliance of powers, in the Syrian war. Her fleet then kept guard along the coast of the Levant, and her sailors fought, when required, with their accustomed bravery. The private character of the emperor is represented as very estimable, and as supported by the most amiable qualities in his consort. Without parade or affectation, the pair are strictly attentive to their religious duties; and it may be said that, owing to the proverbial piety of the imperial family, and of the people, the ancient form of faith appears in Austria in the most attractive form. The ceremony practised at Vienna, on Maundy Thursday (formerly observed in every Christian state), is one of the most gratifying imaginable. It has doubtless been forgotten by many in our own day, and is unknown by most, that Maundy Thursday was intended by the Church to commemorate our Lord's institution of the Eucharist, and his inculcation of humility by washing his disciples' feet. The word is derived from *mandata*, commands, meaning our Saviour's commands. The emperor and empress of Austria still on that day wash the feet, the former of twelve aged and poor men, and the latter of as many poor and aged women, publicly: they also wait upon them at table, and send them away rejoicing—furnishing a delightful picture of the extreme wealth of the earth ministering to the lowest wants of extreme poverty. Men of this irreligious day may mock at this 'pride of humility,' as some have termed it; but on close

inquiry they will find it, in the instance in question, but the outward symbol of a constant regard for the most humble individual in their dominions on the part of a royal pair ; and they will moreover see that the steady religious habits of the Austrian regal family are copied through all grades, to the very meanest of the Austrian people.

The emperor of Austria's territories, in the present day, are for the most part out of Germany ; though, till Napoleon's time, he was liege-lord of all Germany. In Germany are the provinces of Austria, Bohemia, and Moravia ; and out of it, Hungary, Galicia, Lombardy, and Venice. The German provinces are fertile and well cultivated ; and Bohemia has important manufactures of glass and linen, with mines of silver and iron. The fruitful plain of Hungary produces the rich Tokay wine ; and for minerals, it has been called South America in miniature. There is every species of metal found, but tin : amethysts, agate, jasper, garnets, coals, and salt, are in profusion. Hungary was anciently the seat of the Pannonians ; the Huns under Attila had possession of it for awhile ; a branch of the French family held it for years ; and at length it fell by marriages to Austria ; and for a century after that event was a bone of contention between the Austrians and Turks. At last, about 1711, the Austrians were left in peaceable possession ; and as they have ever treated the people with high consideration, they are exceedingly beloved by the better class of Hungarians. Galicia, a fruitful plain on the south of Poland, is ill cultivated, but noted for the abundance of its salt-mines. Lombardy and Venice constitute what is now styled the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and are included in a magnificent plain, watered by the Po, and in the highest state of cultivation. Milan is the capital. The ancient city of Venice itself is seated on seventy isles in the Adriatic, having long rows of tasteful pa-

laces, bordering on canals. The august titles of 'Emperor of Germany and Rome' were abolished by Napoleon 1805 ; and that of 'Austria' substituted for them ; but on the fall of that disturber, the Austrian emperor was constituted president of the German diet. This diet acknowledges Germany still as an integral kingdom ; and, in this spirit, the imperial affairs are transacted by a species of oligarchy, the more powerful of the members having the greater number of votes. Thus Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, and Wurttemberg (each having a king), have the largest number ; and the duchies and electorates (twenty-six) smaller in proportion. Germany, as an integral state, was founded by Charlemagne, 800. The present Austrian monarch springs from Maria Theresa, daughter of the emperor Charles VI., who died 1740 ; and Charles was the lineal descendant of Rodolph of Hapsburg, founder of the house, 1273. There is a personal peculiarity in the Austrian royal family, from which few of its modern members are entirely free ; namely, a thickness of the upper lip. This is one of those varieties which nature, in the human race, first assumes, as if without cause, and then pertinaciously adheres to, through a series of generations. The Austrian house has had 'the Austrian lip,' as it is now designated by the Germans, for several centuries ; and it first came to the family through its intermarriage with the Polish house of Jagello.

PRUSSIA UNDER FREDERICK WILLIAM IV.—This prince succeeded on the decease of his father, Frederick William III., June 7th, 1840, to the general satisfaction of both the catholic and protestant portion of his subjects. To heal the differences consequent upon the Bonn controversy of 1838, was his first effort ; and, with this view, he wrote a letter to the deposed archbishop of Cologne, Clement, baron Droste of Vischering, signifying his approval of the prelate's

very exemplary conduct after deprivation, and enjoining him still to abstain from visiting Bonn, till a hope of his majesty's heart to see him restored to his see, could, with security to all parties, be fulfilled. In December, 1841, accordingly, the king thought fit to give direction to the archbishop to resume his functions; and the following is a translation of the epistle by which he thus gratified the greater portion of his people:—
 'My lord archbishop; You have doubtless learned that the affairs of the church of Cologne have been wisely settled by the intervention of the court of Rome; and I have not lost sight of the zealous assistance you have afforded to this desirable object. More than a year has elapsed since you gave me your word that you would not abuse your restoration to freedom, by returning to Cologne. You have conscientiously kept your promise; and whilst I express to you my satisfaction, I now free you from it, on condition that, if you purpose to make a journey to Cologne, it should not be until after the arrival and installation of the coadjutor. I avail myself with pleasure of this opportunity to assure you, that nothing can warrant the suspicion that you have abused the dignity of your position and your functions, in order to favour revolutionary intrigues, or to connect yourself with persons having those objects in view. I sincerely hope that this assurance will tranquillize you as you deserve, and that Providence will long allow you to enjoy, in the serenity of age, the restoration of peace in the Church.—FREDERICK WILLIAM.' The king's next act was to define and regulate the censorship of the press, and to remove as far as possible all inconvenient restrictions on public writing; and though the concessions his government thus made might bear marks of imperfection and timidity in their application, still they are a proof of the king's excellent sense and considerateness, in a country where military and absolute

domination are yet necessarily the law. A reform of the educational system, and the establishment of a national plan of instruction, are two other points of the present king's policy. The college-life throughout Germany forms a striking contrast to that of our own two universities, with all that can be advanced against the occasional errors of students in the latter. Duelling and beer-drinking are the prevalent and disgusting fashions of the former; and the collegiate business being simply to instruct youth in some particular branch of science or professional knowledge, all care and regard (save in the Austrian dominions) for inculcating and keeping up religious faith, are abandoned. This corruption of the German schools is owing to the still prevalent influence of the illuminati and rationalists; who, in religion, have nearly banished all faith in the letter of the sacred oracles; in metaphysics, have established either a dark system of necessity, or the unintelligible absurdities of a transcendental mysticism; and, in the humbler walks of literature (biography and novels), have deviated from every thing natural and true, and strained at effect by an incongruous combination of bad and good qualities in the same character, so as to screen the hideousness of vice by the romantic circumstances with which it is enveloped, and to excuse every atrocity of conduct by the extraneous virtues which are made to accompany it. The same class were among the French encyclopedists, who, by their sceptical logic, and material and mechanical philosophy, brought on the hideous revolution of 1789. They banished faith out of the world, as an ancient prejudice; accounted for every thing in heaven and earth on philosophical principles; doubted every thing, even historical facts, which they had not seen; believed nothing which could not be demonstrated mathematically; held the world, as it is at present, both moral and physical, to be the indis-

putable standard of what it has always been ; and, as a very first principle, rejected miracles, because contrary to the experienced course of nature.

We have observed, in the reign of Frederick William III., that Prussia is yet obviously unfit for receiving a *constitution*. All experience establishes the conclusion, that it is impossible to found a representative system in any country, where the elements and constituent parts of it have not been previously formed and collected by the effect of causes which have been long in operation ; in other words, without a people which understands what representation is, and without a class of persons from whom a suitable representation may be taken. Now, on the continent generally, and in Prussia in particular, there is no such class as our English country-gentlemen, and unvalued freeholders and yeomen ; and still less a class of capitalists, like our merchants and manufacturers, who are at once rich and independent, possessed of liberal notions without seditious propensities, and who know how to extend a manly and sober respect to rank, station, and public authority, without in any way losing the respect which they feel due to themselves. There is again no ecclesiastical body in Prussia of sufficient authority to command the respect of the throne, the nobility, and the people ; and to carry religious sanction and control into an upper branch of the legislature. When the Prussians have an undivided church ; when they are enabled to do without a military organisation, very nearly approaching to the rigour of the French conscription ; and when they can abolish the system of paid police officers, mayor adjunct, and civil judge, now seated in every village,—they may be more prepared than they are at present for the boon which Frederick William III. had indiscreetly promised them, in his joy at the fall of Napoleon, but which he was compelled in the end to refuse them.

It was on the 22d of January, 1842,

that king Frederick William IV. landed at Greenwich, and proceeded to Windsor Castle, on a visit to queen Victoria ; during which he stood sponsor at the font to the prince of Wales, and was kept continually in a state of pleasurable excitement, either by royal, noble, or civic feasts, the examination of places of science and art, theatrical representations, or engagements in some solemn ceremonial. He embarked again at Woolwich for the continent, February 4th. In September of the same year he founded a new cathedral in the city of Cologne, in the hope of carrying out his father's plan of bringing all his subjects, catholic and protestant, into one form of worship. To further this (we humbly think unattainable) object, his majesty had been the first to urge upon the British government the policy of establishing an English bishop at Jerusalem ; and overtures were made by him to the prelates of the English church, expressly for the purpose of obtaining episcopal orders for candidates for the pastoral office in the Prussian church. The alliance which, through these negotiations with our bishops, it has been endeavoured to establish between the Prussian evangelical church and the church of England, gave occasion for the king's public expression of his desire to consolidate a general religious concord, upon the principle of the essential unity of the different creeds of Christendom ; and this principle seems to have been admitted by the English prelates concerned. It was thus announced in the Prussian 'State Gazette':—'All parties have agreed in the conviction that the diversities of Christian worship in the protestant church are upheld by a superior unity—the Head of the church himself ; and that this superior unity, to which all the diversities refer as their centre, is the foundation of true Christian toleration.' Although this appears to our sober judgment to involve a sad jumble of ideas, we must ever respect the mo-

tives of the king of Prussia; and though we are not sanguine respecting the benefits that are to spring to the Christian world out of the new cathedral of Cologne, it is interesting to notice the anticipations of the royal founder, as expressed in his foundation-speech. 'I take this opportunity,' said his majesty, 'to welcome heartily the numerous guests who, as members of the Cathedral Building Association, have met here from all parts of Germany to celebrate this day. Gentlemen of Cologne, a great event is about to take place among you. Your feelings will tell you that it is no common edifice you are about to erect. It is the offspring of the spirit of union and concord among Germans of every creed. When I reflect on this, my eyes are filled with joyful tears, and I thank God that I have lived to witness this day. Here, where this foundation stone is laid, will arise the noblest portals in the whole world. Germany builds them; may they, by the grace of God, be to her the forerunners of a new, a great, and a happy future. Far from them be all that is anti-German—that is to say, all that is base, false, and insincere. May this portal of honour never be disgraced by bad faith, or by the unworthy disunion of German princes or of the German people. May this structure never disturb the peace of creeds, nor impede the progress of social order; and may that spirit which once interrupted the building of this house of God, and injured the well-being of our common fatherland, find no entrance here. The feeling that has prompted the building of these portals is the same that twenty-nine years ago made us break our chains—rolled back insult from our native land, and division from its shores; it is the same spirit which, fortified by the blessing of my departed father (the last of those three great kings), two years ago displayed itself with a vigour undiminished in power and unimpaired by time; it is the spirit of German

union and of German power: and oh! may the portals of Cologne cathedral be its most glorious triumph! May the spirit which has given birth to this great work serve to complete it; and may it prove to most remote generations that Germany is great and mighty by the union of her rulers and her people, and that she has, without bloodshed, consolidated the peace of the world! May it attest that Prussia is happy in the glory and prosperity of her own fatherland, and in the fraternization of her different religious creeds, all one and alike in the eyes of the divine Father. I pray to God that the cathedral of Cologne may continue to tower above this town and all Germany, and that it may be a witness of peace and happiness among mankind until time shall be no more. Gentlemen of Cologne, your city has by this structure obtained a high pre-eminence over all the other towns of Germany; she has this day proved herself worthy of that pre-eminence. Join then with me as I strike the trowel on the foundation stone—shout with me the thousand-times-repeated rallying cry, 'Laaf Cologne!' This speech, spoken with the most lively enthusiasm, kindled like lightning in the hearts of the thousands present, and called forth an astounding storm of joyful shouts and acclamations.

In October, 1842, king Frederick William commanded count Arnim, the minister of the interior, to announce to the people, in his name, the principles upon which he purposed to reform the administration of the state. These were, in substance, that he did not deem it advisable to introduce into Germany the perilous innovation of 'representative chambers;' but that he would give to his subjects the nearest thing to an actual representation. Every province should, in future, elect a session or committee; and in all cases of public emergency, the king would seek the advice of such committees, and give due weight to

their sentiments on matters connected with their local interests.

RUSSIA UNDER NICOLAS I.—The integrity of the Russian empire mainly depending on the personal character of its autocrat-emperor, the grand-duke Constantine, perhaps from a sense of his incapacity for rule, relinquished his claim to the succession, on the decease of his brother, the emperor Alexander, 1825; and his younger brother, Nicolas Paulowitsch, ascended the throne. This change in the order of rotation was made the plea for resistance on the part of the conspirators alluded to in the previous reign; of whose object a brief relation is here necessary. Among the troops returning to Russia in consequence of the general pacification of 1815, were some young Russian officers, who, enamoured of the various secret associations they had found existing in Germany, united to form a Muscovite one, under the title of 'The Public Good.' From planning the improvement of the empire by promoting schools for education on the English Lancasterian plan, the society soon turned its attention to politics; and some more fascinating form of government than the ancient Muscovite feudal one was resolved on. At first it was agreed to make the empress sovereign of a limited monarchy, for which purpose her husband, Alexander, and his brothers, were to be assassinated; and then a republic was proposed. Meanwhile the plot included some very celebrated names—such as the princes Troubetskoi, Galitzin, Obolensky, Volkonsky, &c., the head being colonel Pestel, aide-de-camp to count Wittgenstein. The Poles also had pretty generally promised their aid. The natural death of the emperor Alexander, however, having occasioned one opportunity for open revolt to be lost, the day appointed for administering the oaths of fidelity to the troops, in favour of Nicolas, was fixed for the period of outbreak. The soldiers, therefore, had no sooner been drawn

up in the Grand-square, beneath the windows of the Winter palace, where the court had assembled, than cries of '*Constantine and the constitution!*' were raised by a conspirator here and there among the crowd of spectators. Count Miloradewitz and colonel Stiirler, commanders of two regiments which refused to respond to the shout, were instantly cut down and killed by Kahowsky, one of the most brutal of the malcontents, and the grand-duke Michael narrowly escaped with his life; but the main body of the soldiers, on seeing the new emperor, Nicolas, resolved to head them, set upon the rebels. The latter fought with desperation, but their numbers were few; and after some rounds of cannon had been discharged, this long-fomenting conspiracy, which had alternately formed visions of liberty and tyranny, was quelled in a few hours. Since so many noble families were implicated, only Pestel, Kahowsky, and three others were hanged: the remainder, 118 in number, were degraded, and banished for life to Siberia. The fact of the Poles having purposed to aid the conspirators, tended necessarily to make the emperor Nicolas regard them, as his predecessor had done, with extreme suspicion; and the same circumstance will account for the subsequent severities used by Russia towards that people.

Khiva is an independent state, being a portion of modern Tartary, and of what was anciently the kingdom of Sogdiana; having Bactria, now Bokhara, on the east, the Caspian sea on the west, and Persia and Kaubul at the south. In 1839, the encroachments of its khan induced the Russians to send forces against him; but more than one army was beaten, and the general-in-chief of one taken prisoner, before any real impression was made on the Tartar horde. At length, in the autumn of 1840, the Khivans, having suffered a severe defeat, willingly came to terms with their powerful

opponents, the khan consenting to give full satisfaction to the emperor for the injuries of which he complained. These were the detention of Russian prisoners in slavery, and the depredations committed by the Khivans upon the confines of the Muscovite empire. Separated as the khan is from Russia by deserts, presenting formidable obstacles to the passage of troops, he will find it his interest in future not unnecessarily to provoke his potent neighbour; while the emperor, unless he have very serious reasons for war, will be slow to engage in one which must necessarily be attended with a vast sacrifice of blood and treasure.

The policy of Nicolas, from the moment almost of his accession, has been to create a national spirit, if we may so speak, in his empire; and with this view he definitively ordered by ukase, that, after 1840, no foreigner should serve either as captain or mate on board any Russian merchant-vessel. The employment of foreign tutors and governesses was prohibited; but though the nobility are henceforth not permitted to remain abroad more than five years, and that only by express imperial permission, merchants, pupils of academies, and engineer officers might go out of the country freely, to gain wealth or information; and foreign artisans, who are vastly wanted, are as freely invited to settle in Russia. The Russian empire embraces an area of four million and a quarter square miles, with a thinly-scattered population of sixty-three millions of men, fifty-two millions of whom are in Europe. Thus has Russia a population only double that of the British isles, spread over a surface sixty fold greater, over indeed one-ninth of the habitable earth. Nicolas gave a Russian code of laws, 1840, to Courland, Esthonia, and Livonia, which had been ceded to his empire on the fall of Napoleon; so that the German institutions and language will soon be extinguished in those states. As respects the am-

bitious views of Nicolas, it is quite absurd to place the petty conquests of Russia in Persia, and the states near our Indian possessions, to any other account than the mere necessity which exists for his constantly beating his troublesome neighbours into peace. There would be no rest for his empire, were he not to keep an anxious watch on the tribes of Caucasians, Kirghishes, and Tartars on his eastern and south-eastern quarters; and it is quite clear that he spoke from his heart, when he assured a British minister, 'that he only sought to rival England in the paths of peace and industry.' The wonder is how a standing army of 600,000 can be well paid out of an annual revenue of eighteen millions—only one-third of that of Great Britain; and the discontent ever prevailing among this immense ill-paid force, at once shows that Russia need not be especially feared. The recent remark of prince Metternich, the Austrian minister, who said to the French ambassador, 'We have been watching the Russians for a century: their power is all show, and more so now than ever,' originated doubtless in this view of the question. As regards the severity of Russia to the Poles, unjustly enough her subjects, it must be confessed that she has cause for complaining of the turbulence of a people that, however well treated (and they were so for a long time by their Russian masters—till their disaffection occasioned a contrary course), catch at every thing like a conspiracy to overturn the institutions of the czars, and unite, as at the opening of the reign of Nicolas, even with assassins, to immolate the czars themselves. Russia has issued ukases for the suppression of the Polish court of justice, and the confiscation of church property, though the stipulations by which the Polish crown was conceded to the emperor Alexander, and which were confirmed by the Vienna Congress, 1815, declared that the institutions of Poland should be maintained; but the lat-

ter could only mean 'while the Poles perform their part of the treaty, and obey their masters,'—which we think they have not hitherto even attempted to do.

Attached as the Esthonian peasantry of the Baltic are to a pastoral life, they most deserve commiseration of all the provinces made tributary to Russia, but not yet Russianized. Great drafts are made on them for the army; and as a Russian soldier is one for life, the Esthonian, on being drawn, feels that he leaves not only kindred and home for ever, but language, country, and form of faith, for a service the very opposite in character to that in which he has been bred, and with which he has no sympathy. The Esthonian nobles have at present all their ancient privileges; and, from having all their responsibilities taken away, they may be regarded as even better off than before.

Russia, it should be borne in mind, has no middle classes of people, nothing beyond two ranks, the highest and the lowest. It is vain, therefore, to look in that country for qualities which equally restrain the one and protect the other, and which alone take root in those intermediate grades, called forth in the progress of nations, equally for the interest of both. To study the real destinies of Russia, the philosopher of mankind must descend to a class still in bondage, and not yet ripe for freedom, but where the elements of political stability and commercial energy are already said to be apparent.

The church of Russia, now independent, and owning the emperor its earthly head, is a branch of the eastern or Greek church, whose missionaries seem to have penetrated among the Slavonian population on the north of the Black Sea at an early period. (See *Independence of Greece*.) In the year 900 the Byzantine writers first mention 'the diocese of Russia,' as part of their church; in 955 we find the princess

Olga went from Kiew, then the capital of the Varcho Muscovites, to Constantinople, to be baptized; and in 988 the grand-duke of Russia himself, Vladimir the Great, received the rite from Christian missionaries. Vladimir also married the sister of the Greek emperor, and introduced the Gospel into his dominions; but idolatry was not wholly eradicated in Muscovy until the twelfth century. The first metropolitan of Kiew was instituted by the patriarch of Constantinople, 903; and from that time the metropolitans of Kiew, who presided over all other Russian bishops, were consecrated at Constantinople, and usually were Greeks by birth. While the Latins held Constantinople, such consecrations took place at Nicæa, whither the patriarch had removed with the court. In 1073, the grand-duke Jsiaslav, having been expelled from his throne, sought refuge at the court of the emperor Henry IV.; and, in order to interest pope Gregory VII. to restore him, he promised to submit henceforth to the western church, instead of the eastern. When, however, he had obtained the object of his promise by the natural demise of his usurping brother, he thought no more of the pope; and though Rome frequently afterwards attempted, in virtue of the offer of Jsiaslav, to draw the Russians under its power, it never succeeded. When the Monguls subdued Muscovy, in the thirteenth century, they gave full protection to the Russian church, which, under such favour, and the subsequent dominion of the Tartars, increased vastly in wealth and influence. The metropolitan removed the see to Vladimir, from Kiew, 1299, in consequence of the Mongul power being better established in the eastern principalities of Russia; and again they transferred it in the fourteenth century to Moscow. This last change enabled the remote province of Lithuania, to plan a separation; and in 1415, Kiew being now, with other principalities of Western Russia,

united to Lithuania, the bishops of the latter elected Gregory Zambak, metropolitan of Kiew; and his successors continued independent of Moscow, and acknowledged only the supremacy of the Constantinopolitan see. Since that period there were two Russian churches, that of Russia Proper, and that of Lithuania, or Poland; but the emperor Nicolas, in 1839, enforced an union of the two, compelled a large portion of the Polish church, which had joined with Rome, to renounce the papal authority, and sent all such clergy as opposed the measure into Siberia. The Russian church is governed by a council called The most holy Governing Synod, which is composed of both ecclesiastical and lay members, whose number is not limited; and the emperor is, as we have stated, the supreme head of such synod. Although but a scion of the church of Constantinople, still, both from the number of her members, the political and moral influence which the emperor, from the relation in which he stands to her, possesses throughout the East, and lastly, from the superior learning and acquirements of many both of her clergy and laity, the church of Russia may justly claim to be considered as the most eminent and powerful portion of the whole orthodox communion of the eastern or Greek rite. Many circumstances have combined to render the present period peculiarly favourable to her enlargement. There has lately arisen in Russia a great disposition to cultivate and develop her energies and resources, as well as those of the state; the beneficial consequences of which may be traced in the improved tone of feeling among the clergy; in the recent augmentation of the number of the bishoprics, corresponding with the increasing numbers and spiritual wants of the population; in the multiplication, as well as in the ameliorated condition of the schools for secular and religious learning; in the better training of candidates for holy orders; and in the care taken to

place only men of good morals, and suitable education, in the cure of souls. The same is also apparent in the growing efficiency and marked success of the missions in Siberia and the Alcutine islands, in which last a new diocese has lately been founded, and the pious and zealous missionary Veniamineff, who has so long laboured among the natives, has been appointed their first bishop; also in the great and increasing number of the converts to the national church, which is stated on good authority to be upwards of 20,000 persons a year, principally drawn from those who have formerly been dissenters. Again, there has been an increased activity of late among members of the Russian church in publishing translations of the Fathers; by which their writings have become generally accessible to the people, and by which the latter have been taught to look back to the earlier and purer ages of the Church Catholic. Many learned and pious individuals have partaken in, and promoted this movement; but two have been particularly conspicuous in it, from the superiority of their abilities and acquirements, as well as from the number and value of the books they have published. These are Philaret, metropolitan of Moscow, and Andrew Nicolaevich Mouraviev, chamberlain of the emperor, and under-procurator of the most holy Governing Synod. The excellent 'History of the Church of Russia' of the latter has been recently translated into English by Mr. Blackmore, chaplain to the Russian company at Cronstadt; and that work affords abundant evidence of the catholicity of the Russian branch, and of the possibility of an union being at some time effected between it and that of England. By such an issue, there would be at least one less great division and schism in the Church of Christ.

SERVIA ACKNOWLEDGED FREE BY TURKEY.—On the accession of the sultan Abdul Medjid to the Ottoman throne, 1839, that young monarch

acknowledged the freedom of Servia from Turkey, save and except as regarded the payment of certain annual tributes. This state formed an integral part of the Turkish empire until 1804; when the Servians, availing themselves of the revolt of Passwan Oglu, pacha of Widin, rose in arms against the Porte, under George Petrowitsch, surnamed 'Kara,' or the black. This Servian peasant, having taken part in a former unsuccessful insurrection in 1787, had fled into the Austrian territories, and even served in the Austrian army in the campaign of 1788; but after the pacification of 1791, he had returned to his country, and resumed his occupation of herdsman and grazier. He was stern and taciturn, but highly courageous; and when the sultan sent two armies into Servia, one under Bekir Pacha, and the other under Ibrahim, pacha of Scutari, in January, 1806, he contrived, with only 10,000 men, to keep both in check, well acquainted as he was with the country, and the intricacies of its forests. At length he defeated the pacha of Bosnia, Bekir, and drove him back across the Drina with great loss, in August; and then rapidly attacking Ibrahim, that pacha, thus taken unawares, proposed a truce, to gain time. The truce, as might be supposed, was not ratified; and Kara George hereon surprised and took Belgrade, except the citadel, which surrendered in 1807. Servia being now free from Turkish soldiery, a military government was formed, consisting of the vaivodes, or chief proprietors of the twelve districts into which Servia was divided, each of whom headed a body of cavalry formed of his tenantry and friends; and it was agreed that the said vaivodes should assemble annually at Belgrade, at Christmas, to deliberate, under the presidentship of Kara George, on the general affairs of the new state; a senate of twelve members, one elected from each district, constituting the permanent executive. Quarrels, how-

ever, soon began between the president and his vaivodes; but as some of the latter still adhered to him, Kara George, hoping to extend his influence, undertook the invasion of Bosnia in 1809, while Russia was at war with Turkey. Being unsuccessful, he was obliged to retire, under protection of a Russian diversion in his favour; but in 1810 he defeated Curschid Pacha, who had advanced from Nissa with 30,000 men, and he soon afterwards routed another Turkish force from Bosnia, and again drove it across the Drina. These successes enabled him to obtain from the vaivodes, in a sitting 1811, more ample powers, and a sort of ministry, which resided continually near his person; and the Porte thought it now advisable to acknowledge him hospodar of Servia, with the proviso that all the fortresses of the country should be garrisoned by Turks. The negotiations lasted so long, that nothing had been determined when the news of Napoleon's success in Germany, 1813, freed the Porte from all fear of Russia, and stimulated it to make a bold effort to recover the Servian territory. Two Turkish armies, therefore, advanced from different quarters upon the country; and fortress after fortress yielding, Kara George, in despair, crossed the Danube, and took refuge in the Austrian dominions, where he was seized and thrown into a prison, whence he never escaped until death freed him. Belgrade was soon entered by the victorious Ottomans, and Servia once more became a pachalik of the Porte. One vaivode, however, named Milosch Obrenowitsch, contrived to keep up insurrection in the southern districts, about Jagodino; and though obliged, after a while, to accept the amnesty offered by the pacha of Servia for himself and followers, he, as soon as numbers of his countrymen had been shot by the Turks, regardless of that amnesty, and thirty-six had been empaled in front of the pacha's residence at Belgrade, 1815, succeeded in again raising the people. Having assembled

the 'heyduks,' a kind of Slavonian klephts, and the fugitives and emigrants of the former insurrection, he attacked the pacha's kiaya (lieutenant) who was advancing against him with 10,000 men: him he defeated, capturing all his artillery and baggage—and when the pacha himself had come out with troops from Belgrade, he beat him also, and so far captured him as to allow of his retiring to Keupri under his (Milosch's) escort. Ali, who headed an army sent against him by Curschid, pacha of Bosnia, he next both defeated and took prisoner; and him he generously sent back to his master with presents. The issue was that prince Milosch went himself to the camp of Curschid Pacha, to negotiate a peace; and, being set upon by the pacha's janizaries, he would have been murdered there, but for the firm interposition of Ali. That general rushed among the assassins, reminding them that the prince had come spontaneously into the camp, with the additional security of their promise of a safe-conduct; and he pointed out that the prophet's vengeance would pursue the man who dared break faith under such circumstances. This seasonable exhortation saved Milosch's life; and upon that person's return to Kragojewatz, his residence, deputies were sent to Constantinople; and at last a firmaum of peace came, appointing another pacha, friendly to the Servians. The fortresses of the country were to remain in the hands of the Turks; but the Servians were allowed to retain the administration of the state, and their senate—and they were permitted to tax themselves. Prince Milosch thereupon restored, with some modifications, the constitution established by 'black George.' A Turkish garrison, however, was still in possession of the fortress of Belgrade; and an annual tribute was to be paid by the prince in person to the pacha resident in that city for the Porte: a state of affairs which continued until the decease of sultan Mahmud. II., and the acces-

sion of his son. The Turkish garrison was thereon withdrawn; and although a pacha, so called, still resides at Belgrade, he has nothing beyond nominal power. By a decree of the Servian diet, prince Milosch and his heirs are sovereigns of the state; and the prince has devoted much of his leisure to the improvement of the country, by constructing canals, bridges, and roads. The Servians are Christians of the Greek communion. Servia is bounded on the north by the Austrian territories of Slavonia and the Hannat; on the east by Walachia and Bulgaria; on the south by Rumili; and on the west by Bosnia, from which it is separated by the river Drina, an affluent of the Save—the whole country being about 180 miles long, from east to west, and 115 broad. It is mountainous and full of forests; but with excellent pasture-lands in the valleys, which are usually swarming with cattle. The population is half a million, and the language is one of the most polished dialects of the Slavonian. Belgrade is the capital and largest city; but the government officials and the prince reside at Kragojewatz, a small town in the centre of the country.

Servia, under the Romans, formed the province of Mœsia Superior; and it obtained its name from the successful invasion of the Servi, a tribe of Slavonians, 901, to whom the emperor Leo VI., 'the philosopher,' allotted lands south of the Danube, in order to oppose them to the Bulgarians, who had long harassed the empire, even to a chance of its destruction. Taking advantage of this, the Servians gradually encroached on the territories of the Greco-Romans; and in 1160, Manuel Comnenus, then eastern emperor, was compelled to check their incursions by force of arms. During the subsequent decline of the eastern empire, the Servians firmly established themselves in Mœsia as an independent nation, under a chief whom they styled 'despotes,' as did, at the same junc-

ture, in the neighbouring states of Croatia and Bosnia, other Slavonians. The sultan Morad I. married a daughter of the despotes of Serbia, 1370; but in 1389, the Servians, Hungarians, and other Christian nations near the Danube, alarmed at the progress of the Turks in Albania, collected a large force under the new despotes of Serbia, Lazarus, and marched against Morad I., whose army they defeated on the plains of Cosowa, near the frontiers of Albania, with great slaughter. Lazarus, however, was made prisoner by the beaten Turks, and instantly put to death; whereon one Milo, of Servian connexions, fell upon and slew Morad in the midst of his body-guard, paying the penalty of his own life, for the bloody deed, on the spot. Morad II., who had married the sister of George, a subsequent despotes of Serbia, turned his arms, notwithstanding, against his brother-in-law, 1441, overran Serbia, took the fortress of Servendria, and obliged George to take refuge at Ragusa, whence he made his way into Hungary, and joined the heroic vaivode, John Hunyady, through whose assistance he recovered a part of his territories. At length Mohammed II., after taking Constantinople, finally conquered Serbia, 1454, and annexed it to the Ottoman dominions, all save the city and district of Belgrade, defended by Hunyady, and at that moment an Hungarian rather than a Servian province. Belgrade did not fall to the Porte until taken by the sultan Sulieman II. the Magnificent, 1521. Serbia continued a province of the Turkish empire until 1717, when prince Eugene, at the head of an Austrian force, took Belgrade, and conquered a large portion of Serbia, which was ceded by the sultan Ahmed III. to Austria by the treaty of Passarowitz, 1718. In the next war that occurred between Germany and the Turks, Belgrade and the portion of Serbia gained by prince Eugene, were regained by the Turks, 1739; and though, so long

after as 1788, marshal Laudohn retook Belgrade, the emperor Leopold II. gave it up again to the Porte by the treaty of Szistova, 1791. From that period until the insurrection of 'Black George,' Serbia and the district of Belgrade had remained part and parcel of the Turkish dominions.

PERSIA UNDER MOHAMMED MIRZA.—The right of succession in Persia, and in all Asiatic monarchies, is, as in ancient times, wholly undefined, and rests with the strongest. Hence, when a sovereign dies, a bloody contest commonly ensues; and in most instances the terrific war rages entirely amongst the relatives of the recently deceased ruler. Such a state of anarchy arose on the death of Futteh Ali, shah of Persia, 1834; and the murderous conflict of brothers and cousins was at length put an end to by an Anglo-Indian force under sir Henry Bethune, which established Mohammed Mirza on his grandfather's throne. Though the English were in consequence in high favour at the court of the young shah at Teheran, Russian influence appears to have predominated; and, contrary to the desire of the British minister, a war was commenced by Mohammed, 1838, against Kamran, who had succeeded his father (page 447) on the petty throne of Herat. An Anglo-Indian force, however, marched from Hindustan upon Herat, and compelled Mohammed to raise the siege of that city, and withdraw his troops; and nearly a year elapsed from that time, before the Persian felt it to be his true interest to cultivate British favour. He at length forgave the check his arms had received before Herat, and received an English resident at his court; and the relations between our country and Persia were again on a friendly footing.

As respects the degree of civilization of the Persians (of West Persia), there is good reason to believe that the enchanting narratives of English travellers, which have of late so

raised our notions of the Moslemin tenants of the land of Cyrus, are in the main over-statements. We must admit at once the high state of cultivation of the Persian writers ; but we fear the followers of Mahomet can never rise very high in the scale of civilized beings. In support of the first assertion, we may take a random instance of the elegance of Persian poets :—‘ As thou (writes one, addressing a child), a naked, new-born infant, cried, when all around thee smiled—so, dying, calm mayst thou smile, while all around thee weep!’ In confirmation of our less flattering observation, we have but to note the first impressions of England upon the heir-apparent of the Persian throne, Reeza Koolee Meerza, and his brothers, so recently as 1836 ; and we shall perceive that even the regal family has been so unaccustomed to the manners of really polite society, as to stare and wonder at common things with all the simplicity of savages. The mode of expression is oriental enough and hyperbolic ; but the hyperbole constantly degenerates into positive untruth.

‘ From the time we left Falmouth (writes Reeza Koolee Mirza) till we arrived in London, we did not see a span of earth uninhabited. In all places along the roads and streets, we observed men and women walking arm-in-arm ; also coaches and carriages, in which there were ladies, like the houries, running in every direction ; every moment increased our surprise as we advanced. Even the peasants that dwell in villages have lofty and beautiful houses ; outside of every house there are beautiful gardens, adorned with very fine flowers, where ladies, splendidly dressed, take their walks. All the time of our travels in this country, our eyes did not see a single handbreadth of earth but was covered with delightful green, roses, and all kinds of flowers, guarded by the nightingale’s singing. Such air and water are scarcely in the world : in-

deed, what there is to be seen is enough to take away the senses. It is the first story of Paradise ; the majestic moon ; the nightingales on the trees standing with pride ; the roses resemble the cheeks of the inhabitants. At length all this night we went on passing by gardens, edifices, and lights : there was no darkness at all. In all the roads there are lanterns lighted ; also the houses give out their lights from the windows ; in short, our travelling in mid-night was not less pleasant than that of mid-day. *While in an Hotel at Bath.*—While we were sitting, when it was about the asser, behold ! a sun appeared from our east, shining and flashing. On seeing this incomparable beauty, and beholding this lovely face, like the full moon, I lost my senses, not to say that I lost my sight in admiration—no—my eyes, by beholding her smiling, became an hundred times more powerful. The delightful odour of her hair fell into my heart ; and I was obliged to rise up and invite her to sit by my side, paying her all honourable respect. My heart died away ; and unless my mind had gained strength to maintain conversation with this visitor, I should appear as if I were lost. I asked who she was ? This full moon was the daughter of a captain in the East Indies. From Friday the 11th to Monday the 14th, we have nothing to do but to continue looking at the beautiful Christian daughters. The least number that we ever saw in one day, was about 5000. Now the master of the place asked us whether we would allow the ladies to come and see us ; of course I replied, ‘ Let them come.’ Thus all the day long we were engaged in receiving our most excellent visitors. Once we were sitting, when there came in sight a planet, which dazzled our eyes as it rose up ; I took courage, and touched her beautiful jasmine hands, and invited her to sit down. What a life to the heart ! how could the poor slave in love ask a kiss ? What is the courage of a

dervish to stand before this majesty! *Being invited to Windsor.*—This superior palace is situated in a garden or park fifty-two miles in circumference (!), which is surrounded by a wall of iron bars, about three yards and a half high. The park has forty gates splendidly wrought; and through it run several fine streams, like rose-water; and its trees are most noble, producing a beautiful shade. The carriage-roads are so finely paved, that a person might take his repose upon them. Roses of every kind, and flowers of every hue, are in this park. Its land is green like emerald—its prospect is pleasure to the eye. Gazelles, antelopes, and deer, are here in thousands. Pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, and game of every kind abound; all of which are enjoying this delightful place. •Nightingales, goldfinches, and their associates, keep, with their sweet voices, watch in this garden. It is naturally carpeted with a beautiful green velvet. My pen tells me 'do not proceed;' I am incapable of describing it—it is Paradise. In one part of this Eden there is a hill two miles in circumference, on which the palace is built; it is about 2000 yards in height, and affords a most beautiful view of the park. The mind cannot but be astonished at this splendid edifice, whose description exceeds the power of human writers. *At the Opera House, London.*—It is a very lofty edifice, built in a wonderful manner. From the roof of it to the ground, on the three sides round, there are small rooms made of wood—these they call boxes; these rooms or boxes are elegantly dressed up with woollen cloth and velvet; before every box there are forty chandeliers of cut glass—each has forty lights; there are also lights in every part of the house. The forty chandeliers of cut glass, each containing forty lights, and each light of five branches, as well as the other lights, have one pipe, which, by touching an instrument, all the thousands of lights suddenly become

dim, so that you scarcely see anything; and by moving the instrument differently, they as suddenly give a powerful light. There are young ladies, with faces like the full moon, the beauty of whom makes the illumination of the sun dark; and a company of young men, whose beauty obscures the sun. Seats are provided below for the musicians; they play with instruments which nourish the heart: the pen and the tongue are incapable of giving an adequate description of them. There were in the boxes around, more than a thousand young and beautiful ladies, splendidly dressed with jewels; the beam of their beautiful face illumines the place—the brilliancy of their sweet faces takes away the heart—my whole soul cried out to leave the body, that it might go near those houris. The heart beats with the ravishment of that sight. There are also distinguished places about this house, where are fine-looking women, with arms like jasmine, and faces like a shining mirror; these handsome young women sell refreshments—and, on the whole, this place seems to furnish the nourishment of life.—Surely after these magniloquent descriptions, prince Reeza has nothing left of his rhetoric wherewith to paint the houris of his native land: assuredly they must resemble paled and faded stars, after England's full moons and sparkling planets; and we are inclined to think that the vaunted rose-gardens of Gulistan would, in like manner, sink into insignificance, had an inspection been made by the Mirza of the beautiful lavender and rose fields of Major Moore of Mitcham! 'Every person (continues prince Reeza) that has given ten tomans of revenue, in case he should see any thing wrong in its expense, has a right to rise up in the house of commons, and seize the vizir of the treasury by the collar, saying, what have you done with my money?' We hope it is no breach of privilege to publish such a libel on the majesty of the British

senate, and will conclude with observing that their Highnesses, on visiting the 'Opera of the Horse' (Astley's) saw 50,000 ladies in the boxes of that theatre, who, of course 'gave splendour to the place.' After this, they went to a cutler's shop, and saw two million of knives of different descriptions—observed, in their walks, two millions of stage-coaches—saw on many houses golden knockers of an hundred toman's value each—and noticed '500,000 clocks fixed on the churches and other edifices in London.' Certes, our western brethren across the Atlantic scarcely yet come up, in their attempts at exaggeration, to the minute accuracy in enumeration which distinguishes their eastern antipodes. And yet do these oriental hyperbolists put forth proverbs of the most measured and didactic kind; such as, 'Collect thy cares into an heap, and sit down quietly upon them.'

The accomplished Mr. James Morier's summary of the Persian character is that with which we shall conclude. He was for some years a resident in the land of attar of roses, during the reign of Futteh Ali; and all that he has written of the country, in plain truth or in fiction, is highly deserving of attention, for its faithful delineation. 'Although the Persians (says he) cannot be complimented upon their morality as a nation, yet no one can deny that they abound in a lively wit, a social disposition, and in qualities which fit them to be agreeable companions. The Englishman, bred up in reverence of truth, in love of justice, and in admiration of every thing that constitutes good government, with a strict sense of honour, and a quick impulse to uphold his rights as an independent man, remains perfectly astonished and incredulous at all he sees and hears, when first he finds himself an inhabitant of an Asiatic state. In Persia particularly, where truth and falsehood are upon equal terms, where a man, to live, must practise deceit, where the meaning of the

word honour is not to be defined, and where there is no government but such as emanates from caprice or despotism,—there his astonishment and disgust are complete. During my stay in that country, I became acquainted with Persians of various ranks and denominations; from the king on the throne, to the lowest tent-pitcher and muleteer. At first I felt as any other of my countrymen would feel: I was startled at their unceasing adulation, and petrified by their unblushing falsehoods, however pleased I might be with their winning manners. But as I became more acquainted with the genius and character of the nation, I learned to place a more correct value upon their professions, and to give a truer interpretation to their assertions. I found much of the disgust which I had at first felt, proceeded from their forms of speech, which I can compare to nothing better than a redundant paper-currency, that begins by being of doubtful value, and ends by being worth nothing at all. How would it surprise Mr. A. if, riding with Mr. B. in the park, Mr. A. praising the beauty of his companion's horse, Mr. B. were immediately to say, you do me honour—it is a present to you—I will send it to you. And if, in utter confusion, Mr. A. felt himself bound to accept it, how much more surprised would he be to hear Mr. B. turn round and make the same present and the same speech to the next person who should happen equally to praise his horse! Yet so it is in Persia. This sort of intercourse takes place on every common occurrence; and it would be deemed ill-breeding, and a want of knowledge of life, if the language of falsehood, flattery, and hyperbole, were not used the more abundantly, the more elevated the rank of the parties addressed. The Persians have aptly been called the French of the East. Vanity is, in truth, their besetting sin; and that circumstance alone may account for the lust for compliment and adulation which ex-

ists in both nations.' It should be observed that the ancient practice, on the part of the sovereign, of retaining improvisatore tale-relaters, as in the manner of the 'Arabian Nights,' still obtains in Persia; and Shah Futeh Ali, during the journeys that he made on horseback, whether on military or hunting occasions, had constantly his story-teller by his side, to entertain him with relations invented on the instant, and adapted in nature and tendency to the exigency of the moment—thus to beguile the tedium of the road.

SPAIN UNDER THE REGENCY OF ESPARTERO.—We have shown in the previous reign, that queen Maria Christina, rather than share the regency with the duke of Victory, the general Espartero, surrendered her powers in October, 1840; and the ambitious duke was elected sole regent of the kingdom by the Cortes, May 8, 1841. Baldornero Espartero can boast of no very lofty origin; being the son of an humble joiner in the village of Garantula, in the province of La Mancha. He was born in 1793, and is consequently not beyond his prime. Not of very strong constitution in youth, he was educated for the clerical profession, with the help of an uncle of the same calling; but the outbreak of the war between France and Spain called the attention of every youth of spirit to arms, and Espartero, at the age of fifteen, joined a body of fellow-students of theology in the formation of a volunteer corps, the members of which were soon transferred to different divisions of the regular service. Baldornero continued in a private position for a year or two, and then, by the influence of his clerical relation, was placed at the military school temporarily formed by the Spaniards under the walls of Cadiz. It is understood that the young man failed to distinguish himself as a theoretical student of the art of war; but, in due course, he received the commission of ensign, being at the time 23 years of age. Immediately after this pe-

riod, we find him passing to South America, with the troops sent thither by Ferdinand VII. at his restoration, to reduce the rebellious colonists of Spain. In Peru and Chili, the scene of his campaigns, our soldier of fortune rose to the brevet rank of brigadier-general, and became colonel of a regiment. He chiefly filled the peaceful duties of secretary to general Murillo, until one brilliant feat of arms showed his capacity for more active services. La Madrid, one of the most daring and famous of the colonial chiefs, having shut himself up, in March, 1817, in a strong fort, near Cochabamba, in Upper Peru, general Murillo advanced against it, being determined to reduce it before succours could arrive; and young Espartero, burning to distinguish himself, obtained leave to lay down the pen, and join his battalion in the attack. Three times was the assault repelled; until at length Espartero, whose personal bravery had commanded universal admiration, sent a message to his superior, stating, that with a supply of ammunition, and a reinforcement of only fifty men, he would take the place in one hour. This aid was accorded; but before its arrival, the young secretary, rendered the leader of the storming party by the death of seven officers, made a new attempt at conquest. He tore off his neck-cloth, and fixing it on the point of his sword, waved it above his head, exclaiming, 'An hundred ounces of gold to him who first lays hands on the enemy's colours!' He then dashed on, followed by his men, and became master of the fort in spite of all opposition. Exhibiting on several subsequent occasions the same impetuous valour, Espartero remained in the New World till 1824; when the victory of the insurgent colonists at Ayacucho terminated the rule of the Spaniards in America, and sent him back with his companions to the mother-country. Besides his increased grade, and his military fame, he brought home a large fortune,

calculated at about 80,000*l.* sterling; in part the fruit of economy and a sharp attention to his own interests, but chiefly, it is alleged, the produce of wonderfully successful gambling, in which the Spanish officers, as well as the colonists, indulged at the time to excess. Thus master of a large fortune, at the early age of thirty-one, Espartero, after having his brigadier-ship confirmed by Ferdinand, was sent to Logroño, to command the troops there. He soon after married the daughter of a wealthy merchant of that place, named Santa Cruz. During the next years, he served king Ferdinand with zeal in Spain and Majorca, defending absolutism against the emigrants and liberals of the country. Nevertheless, when the royalist war, under Carlos, broke out at the close of 1833, he at once declared for the queen-regent and her infant daughter, and requested employment in the north of Spain, the seat of the early disturbances. This offer was accepted, and he was appointed to the command of the province of Biscay. In this position, the peculiarities both of the private and military character of Espartero found scope to develop themselves, and soon became apparent to the discerning portion of his countrymen. He maintained his reputation for brilliant personal bravery, always behaving well when in actual conflict; but his tactics were of the Fabian order, and, throughout his whole career, he seemed ever either indolent, or more desirous to avert peril, and wear out opposition, than to meet them boldly in the face, and crush them. As leader of the troops in Biscay, under orders of the commander-in-chief, Cordova, Espartero sustained various losses and reverses, and gained also some battles, or rather skirmishes, of no great importance. The terrible Zumalacarbequi, and the subtle Gomez were his chief opponents, and usually proved too much for him. But though Espartero's campaigns did little for the queen's cause, to himself

he made them important. After an insignificant victory, he wrote one of those Napoleon-like bulletins for which he afterwards became famous,—praising the troops under his orders, and requesting, as a reward to his second in command, brigadier Benedicto, the rank of adjutant-general. The government could not refuse the request; but feeling at the same time how absurd it would be to elevate Benedicto above the man under whose directions he had merely been an actor, they were under the necessity of making both of them adjutants-general. This was precisely what had been aimed at; and the plan became one of the general's customary and characteristic devices. Partly in this sort of way he acquired for himself, in one year, the orders of St. Hermenegilde, Isabella the Catholic, St. Ferdinand, and Charles III., and the grade of lieutenant-general; and he obtained, nearly within the same time, the key of gentleman-in-ordinary of the chamber, and procured admission for his wife to the order of Noble Ladies of queen Maria Louisa. Up to the close of 1836, amid all the varied military movements of the war, in which the one party was now successful, and then the other, the chief object of Espartero—whose address more than his generalship obtained him by degrees high political consequence, and whose pecuniary liberality and boon comradeship made him a favourite with the army—seemed to be to oust Cordova from the commandership of the army. The latter, a man of noble birth, was moderately liberal in his opinions, and did not countenance the ultra-revolutionary spirit which prevailed so extensively in Spain during the war, dividing the Christino councils, and impeding the effect of all military operations. Espartero, on the other hand, adopted the democratic side, at least at the outset, and is said to have winked at the insurrectionary breaches of discipline committed by the army, with the view of embarrassing Cordova.

In his own division, disorder was first observed; and the lieutenant-general, in smoking at evening with his officers, or, as he sometimes did, with his sergeants, was wont to laugh at the irregularities of his soldiery, as a trespass altogether venial. He even allowed this system to go so far, as at length to endanger his own authority; perceiving which, he ran into an opposite extreme in repressing evil, and by his cruel conduct shocked all Spain. On account of some act of pillage, he one day ordered out a whole battalion of volunteers, and decimated them—that is, shot one man in every ten of the corps. The necessity of maintaining discipline was of course the excuse made by himself and his friends. The innocent here perished with the guilty, and the author of the deed was severely blamed, not only through the country, but also by the Cortes. The military revolution of August, 1836, at Madrid, when the queen-regent was compelled to accept the constitution of 1812, at length secured to Espartero the long-wished-for object of his ambition and his intrigues. Cordova, disgusted with the democratic spirit, and determined not to take the oaths to the new constitution, threw up his command, and recommended as his successor Espartero, regarding whose true motives he was yet ignorant. At the time Cordova left his army, it was campaigning in Navarre, and fell under the temporary command of general Oraa. When made aware of his being recommended as successor to Cordova, he was engaged in the Asturias, in chase of the Carlist priest and chief, Gomez, who had the knack of slipping like an eel through the hands of all his enemies. Fearing Oraa might contrive to make his temporary command a permanent one, Espartero felt it necessary to proceed instantly to Navarre. A fit of sickness, commonly believed to be one of convenience, gave a colour for such a course; and he resigned the chase of Gomez to his lieutenant, Alaix.

He then had himself conveyed in a litter to Logroño, the head-quarters of the army of Navarre. Conveniently for his designs, his wife was at this time resident with her father. The latter got up a public entry for his son-in-law, and, sparing no expense, easily contrived to have him welcomed with great rejoicings, both by the commonalty, and that portion of the army not with Oraa in the field. Hearing of the great popularity of the aspirant in Navarre, the government did not venture to keep from him the commandership-in-chief; and, on receipt of the proper credentials, Espartero rapidly threw off his illness, and became captain-general of the Basque provinces, and viceroy of Navarre. After being raised to this high office, the general characteristically expended the only two remaining months of the campaigning season of 1836 in total inactivity. At length the enemy, imboldened by his listlessness, sat down before Bilboa; and as this place was in some measure the key of northern Spain, its capture would have deeply endangered the cause of the young queen. Roused by cries of alarm from all quarters, Espartero marched to the relief of the town. The Carlists budged not from the spot; and though lord John Hay and the British seamen were there to assist, Espartero, according to his usual dilatory policy, did little or nothing, till accident forced on an engagement; when the Carlists were compelled to raise the siege. In the actual combat, the Spanish general, as was his wont, contrived to redeem his credit. Springing from a bed of sickness, he placed himself at the head of his guard of horse, and in person led the last decisive charge, behaving with the most distinguished gallantry. He was in consequence created a count, by the title of the Conde Luchana, from the name of the late scene of battle. The next step in Espartero's career was a bold one. General Evans, who had been some time in Spain, was anxious to strike a de-

cisive blow before his approaching departure from the country, and proposed a combined plan of operations; but Espartero refused to assent, so as to thwart the whole, and to permit Don Carlos, after gaining an advantage over Evans and Saarsfield, to march to the very gates of Madrid. The government now cried out loudly against Espartero; and he knew that, if they dared, they would supersede him at once. When he marched to Madrid, therefore, and the foe left it, the general went with the resolve to overturn the ministry; and to gratify his obvious desire, ninety of his officers, under threat of a resignation of their posts, demanded the expulsion of the ministry, and gave him the opportunity of effecting what he wished, under apparent compulsion. He chid the officers, but kept them all about him. Espartero was now virtually the civil as well as military governor of Spain. In a short time, though a time vexed by many intrigues, general Narvaez, as well as Cordova, thought it prudent to go into exile; and thus the two men whom Espartero most feared as rival candidates for his own situation, stood in his way no more. His favourite lieutenant, Alaix, was made prime minister of Spain. He is said, about this time, to have been by no means remarkable for a steady adherence to his own party, being often found favourable to the views of the moderates when these suited his own. We must pass very briefly over the events which followed his accession to civil as well as military domination. He kept his lieutenants still acting in arms, and took the field himself in various parts of the country; but it was to the arts of policy, as usual, that he seemed still to look for success. In 1839 he began to sow anarchy in the camp of Don Carlos, and was strikingly successful. The most trusted of the remaining Carlist chiefs, Maroto, privately united himself to Espartero: the characteristic agent employed by the latter as a go-between, was a man of low rank,

usually called 'the muleteer of Barga,' and a secret treaty was entered into through his agency. Maroto's first act of treachery, was 'to cut off the right arm of Don Carlos,' as the act may be termed, by assembling and massacring a number of his most able generals, on the plea that they had misadvised their master. While playing off the farce with Espartero of fulminating mutual denunciations of the most bitter kind, Maroto proceeded in his arranged course, till Don Carlos was glad to escape with his life from Spain, and the civil war was quelled in the Basque provinces. Soon after, it ceased throughout Spain, and Espartero passed over the country in triumph—highly elated with his successful policy. In the same year in which these proceedings took place (1839), he received the title of Duke of Victory, that somewhat presumptuous style being his own choice. The remainder of Espartero's career has been but a series of successes, won by great political address, and also, as it would seem, by a continuously happy run and combination of circumstances. He changed ministers and favourites at will, and no man throve that opposed him. When Cabrera, the last great Carlist chieftain, gave up the contest, the duke of Victory was left chiefly to civil politics. He assumed the premiership into his own hands, 1840, and soon afterwards (as said at the commencement of this article) demanded that he should be associated with queen Christina in the regency. Alarmed by perpetual disturbances, the queen-mother was driven, by this new assault upon her position, to the abdication of her office. She quitted Spain; and in the beginning of 1841, Espartero was elected regent in her place.

Under a jealousy of this high advancement of the duke of Victory, general O'Donnell, in the October after his installation as regent, organized a plan for restoring the queen-mother, and declared Pampe-luna, the strongest fortress of Spain,

and perhaps in Europe, of which he was governor, the rallying-place of her cause. The viceroy of Navarre (of which Pampeluna is the capital), on hearing of the revolt, began a hasty and ill-judged attack upon the citadel; O'Donnell responded by cannonading the town; and the viceroy was compelled, for the sake of saving the inhabitants, to agree to a truce. The fortress of Vittoria now declared for the queen-mother, and proclaimed the liberties and *fueros* of the Basque provinces; and that of Saragossa followed the same example. At the moment of O'Donnell's proclamation, some regiments of the royal guards, in the same interest, attempted to seize the person of the young queen at Madrid. The project, however, was unsuccessful; and after an hour's fighting with another regiment, which constituted the internal guard of the palace, the generals Leon and Concha, the leaders of the conspiracy, fled. This was on the night of October the 7th. The regent, so soon as he could muster troops on which he could rely, marched northwards to punish the author of the revolt; who, although Estella had fallen to him, evacuated that place and Pampeluna, on finding the army faithful to his opponent, and escaped into France. Espartero hereupon ordered the destruction of all forts and castles in Biscay and Navarre within fifteen days; a measure considered to put an end for ever to the pending question in the Cortes of the *fueros*, and therefore most certain to create a powerful opposition to the aspiring general. General Diego Leon was captured, carried to Madrid, and there shot, October 15; and general Quiroga Frias was in the same manner executed, November 2. After these acts of severity, Espartero suddenly began a system of rewards and conciliation, even creating one of his most violent opponents (a Barcelona butcher) a field-marshal. To catch the clergy, when he had been informed that one of his regiments had

followed some insurgents to a church where they had sought refuge, and, not contented with expelling the party, had wantonly polluted the altar, and contemptuously treated the holy elements, he ordered the general in command of the district to disarm and lead out the offending soldiery to an appointed place, and there, having decimated them by lot, to shoot every tenth man—a command which was rigorously carried into execution.

No very important national event occurred after the suppression of O'Donnell's rebellion until January, 1842; when the republican proceedings of the regent having begun to excite the proper vigilance of the continental sovereigns, king Louis Philippe, of France, gave special orders to his minister at Madrid, M. de Salvandy, to watch, and if possible to control them. In this spirit, M. de Salvandy was instructed to present his credentials to the queen only, but in the presence of the regent. Espartero, and indeed the Cortes, objected; and though Mr. Aston, the English resident, proposed, as an amicable compromise, that such credentials should be presented to the regent in the presence of the queen, and be by him instantly handed to her majesty, even that course was refused by Espartero. M. de Salvandy, thereupon, scarcely waiting to pack up, quitted Madrid for Paris; and certainly, where the right of property is in one (the queen, a minor), and the authority of the right of acting in administration of it in another (the regent), the Roman law, which is still in force in diplomatic relations, is clearly in favour of Mr. Aston's view of this very silly question.

The year 1842 was a comparatively quiet one for Spain; and it was very confidently rumoured that the European courts were contriving a reconciliation of the regal houses, by proposing an union between the son of Don Carlos and the young queen, his cousin. In November of that

year political disturbances began again in the province of Catalonia, occasioned by an act of Cortes (promoted by the regent in his desire to abolish all *fueros*), which enforced the recruitment system upon the Catalans; who, from being greatly employed in cotton manufactures, had ever enjoyed exemption from serving in any other military capacity than as national guards, or militia. The outbreak occurred in the following manner:

On the morning of the 12th of November, the political chief of Barcelona, don Juan Gutierrez, was seen to leave his own house, followed by a company of soldiers, and a picket of cavalry. This formidable escort in attendance on the principal authority of such a city as Barcelona, attracted, as may be supposed, universal attention; and from every street through which he passed, he was followed by crowds of both the idle and the industrious. He stopped first at a house where one of the chief editors of the 'Republicano' newspaper was known to reside; him he arrested and delivered over as a prisoner to the troops. Thence he proceeded to the residences of the others, who were known to be in connexion with the same journal. These circumstances excited much attention and some alarm amongst the crowd who were about him. Parties were sent to different quarters of the city, particularly to those localities where the operatives and the young men employed as clerks in commercial houses were known to reside, and of whose political opinions the 'Republicano' was the known organ. Certain obscure individuals, also, not recognised as having any ostensible means of living, were observed to be most active and energetic in creating anarchy, and inflaming the popular mind against the principal magistrates of the place. The accounts spread abroad by such messengers did not, as may be supposed, lose any thing on the way. On the contrary, they were exaggerated

considerably, and it was stated that the political chief, at the head of more than half the garrison of Barcelona, was breaking into the houses of the peaceful and defenceless citizens. In a few moments all was confusion; and an outbreak would, in all probability, have immediately taken place, were it not for the arrival of the principal officers of the National Guard, who succeeded in restoring temporary tranquillity, by the assurance that they would procure from the political chief the release of those who had been arrested.

That functionary had, in the mean time, retired with his prisoners. The officers of the National Guard waited on him, and requested that they might be placed at liberty, representing to him, at the same time, the unquiet state of the public mind. The political chief replied that those whom he had arrested had violated the laws which it was his duty to uphold, and that this duty he would perform at any cost. He refused to comply with their prayer. They retired, but did not immediately announce to the public the result of their mission. The whole of that day the populace were in a troubled and restless state; but no overt act of violence was as yet committed. In the course of the afternoon, finding that the political chief did not, of his own accord, as it was expected he would have done, place his prisoners at liberty, a commission, composed of some of the principal amongst the republican party, chiefly young men engaged in commerce, again waited on him, and intreated him to comply with their request. He not only refused, but ordered the commissioners themselves to be arrested on the spot. The news of this last act spread about the city at once, and formed the subject of violent discussion in the cafés and other places of public resort; and on the following day serious symptoms of movement began to manifest themselves. Crowds were gathering in the squares of the

Consistorial-house, and in that of San Jayme; and from the expressions, gestures, and actions of the parties forming them, it was evident that a storm was approaching. The political chief anticipating, no doubt, such a result, had already taken his precautions. A large body of troops, of all arms, had, since the previous day, taken up a position, by his orders, in the Rambla. They were under arms, and were ready to act at a moment's notice. The first duty which they were called on to fulfil was that of dispersing the multitude collected in the squares alluded to. They fixed bayonets, and proceeded to the evacuation of the square, and the occupation of the Consistorial-house. The national guards, to whom the custody of these edifices is intrusted (and who were, almost to a man, workmen of the cotton-factories in Barcelona), rushed to their arms, and not only refused admittance to the troops, but repulsed them with violence, and drove them back to their original position in the Rambla.

About the same time, or perhaps something later in the day, a dispute took place between some peasants and operatives on one side, in all about thirty-five in number, and the guard of one of the gates of the city called the Puerta del Angel, on the other. This dispute had nothing of a political tendency, being, in fact, simply a squabble arising from the operatives being charged with not having paid the dues of a cask of wine they were rolling in at a gate of the city; yet it was made use of by the disturbers already mentioned, and was sufficient to inflame still more the angry feeling which at that moment subsisted between the military and civilians. On the morning of the 14th matters came to an issue. The crowds in the Plaza San Jayme were so numerous and so tumultuous, that it became absolutely necessary to dislodge them. The advance was sounded; orders were given; and the troops proceeded *au pas de charge*

against the mob. The national guards were prepared for battle, shots were fired, and the combat soon became general. The military, though greatly outnumbered, fought with much steadiness and bravery, and there is little or no doubt that the victory would have remained with them, had it not been for some acts of pillage which in the mean time took place. Three houses belonging to the principal goldsmiths in the Calle Plateria were broken into and plundered: it went about that Zurbano had given orders to his soldiers to do so. Whether that general were justly or unjustly accused, the tidings of this act of violence went like lightning through the streets, and the feelings of the populace were lashed into the highest pitch of fury. Every man turned out, and prepared himself to defend his house and family against military lawlessness. In less than three quarters of an hour, the entire city was put into such a state of defence, that each street became a fortress; every window, every balcony became a bulwark; and, as the military passed beneath, tables, beds, chests, benches, tiles, stones, hot water, boiling oil, molten lead, were showered down upon them. Every article of furniture, the most precious as well as the most worthless, which could cause death or inflict injury, was flung down on the defenceless head of the unhappy soldier. The very children crawled along the house-tops for the purpose of stripping the tiles and chimneys, to keep up the supply of missiles. When every article was exhausted in the work of death, the women flung the *puchero*, the earthen pot in which the afternoon meal is cooked, with its contents of lard, cabbage, garbanzos, and soup, scalding hot, into the faces and eyes of the officers.

Whilst this fierce warfare was going on, orders were given that the drum should beat through the streets, to call the entire force of the national guards to arms. They at once responded to the call. They

rushed to their barracks; from this position they opened a deadly fire on the troops, who, notwithstanding the resistance they met with, were gaining ground, and gradually approaching the Plaza San Jayme. They would, beyond any doubt, have taken possession of this important position in a short time, had not an operative, named Manfalla, rushed to the cathedral, mounted to the loftiest turret, and then commenced ringing the *somaten à rebato*—the tocsin, the alarm bell which rouses all to arms. It is necessary to have spent some time amongst the mountains of Catalonia, and to be conversant with the habits and usages of the wild people who inhabit them, in order to appreciate the effect produced when this dreadful summons is heard. There is a sort of superstitious awe mingled with the feeling which its sound calls into existence; and the Catalan who would remain by his hill-side unmoved by its echoes, would be accursed in himself and his posterity. The fiery cross, in days of yore, speeding on its fierce and flaming course, never called the Highlands of Scotland into wilder life and tumult than the *somaten à rebato* the mountains and fastnesses of Catalonia. It is believed to be the voice of God himself which awakens the Catalan, and summons him to the defence of his *fueros*, and his customs, and the ashes of his fathers. The combat deepened in ferocity and in bloodshed the moment the roar of that 'awful bell' opened from the cathedral. The battle was fought with the utmost desperation, until the soldiers, seeing their best and bravest officers lying dead or dying in the streets, began to commence retiring along the Rumbá, towards the citadel, and in the direction of the sea-wall. While in the act of retreating by this point, they unfortunately, through haste or imprudence, formed a dense mass, and thereby presented a mark to the enemy, of which they were not slow to take advantage. The first battalion of national guards, whose bar-

racks are close to the wall, lifted their pieces as one man, and threw a volley into the thick of the fugitives. More than 600 bullets carried death and destruction amongst them. This was the last attempt at serious resistance on the part of the military.

The captain-general Van Halen, perceiving the state of affairs, now thought proper to retire into the citadel with the troops, whence he cannonaded and bombarded the city. He was, however, at length attacked in this stronghold by the people and the nationals, and with such vast effect, that he had to make his retreat at half-past two o'clock in the morning of the 16th, by a particular outlet, no doubt intended for so sad a purpose, and called the Puerta del Socorro. The insurgents remained complete masters of the town before day dawned, and of the troops that as yet remained in it. In the interest of truth it must be told, that they did not abuse their victory by any ill-treatment of their prisoners. The soldiers and officers who had been unable to effect their retreat, were those who occupied the barracks, called, from its vicinity to the university, the Cuartel de los Estudios, and the fort of Atarrazanas. Seeing themselves thus isolated, and completely cut off from their companions, they were forced to capitulate. The officer commanding them, and who signed the capitulation, was brigadier de Castro. On the troops who thus remained, the most friendly attentions were lavished. Their necessities, which were great, for they had scarcely eaten, drunk, or slept for the two previous days, were supplied in abundance. Money was also issued to them. The officers were regaled at the cafés and hotels in the most sumptuous manner by the fiercest of the young republicans.

A supreme popular directive junta of nine members was immediately formed after this victory. It was composed almost entirely of young men of republican principles, and at

the head was one Garcey, a manufacturer; and they proceeded to discuss plans for the establishment of order and tranquillity in the city, which had been entirely left without any governing authority,—the political chief having retired to take measures of defence with the force under Van Halen, which was blockading the city from San Felix. Various flags of truce were sent, and several interviews were held with the general by commissioners from the insurgents, in order to restore tranquillity; and Van Halen pledged himself, in case he was not attacked, not to inflict any unnecessary injury on the place,—at least, until further notice. Up to this period about 1000 were the killed and wounded on the part of the military, and 500 on that of the civilians and national guard.

Espartaco, the regent, with his escort and three battalions of regular troops set out from Madrid on the 17th, to subjugate the insurgents. In his progress eastward, he was everywhere received in the towns with acclamation; and on arriving in the neighbourhood of Barcelona, on the 28th, he would not enter the city, but took up his head-quarters at Sarrio. A deputation from the junta waited upon him the same evening: and on being introduced by Rodil, the war-minister, to the regent, the party demanded as conditions of capitulation, that the garrison to be introduced into the city should be composed of other regiments than those which had been engaged against the people, that the institution of the national guard should not be interfered with, that the political chief and others should be removed, that a guarantee should be given in favour of the cotton manufacturers, the restraints upon whom were the principal cause of the discontent in Catalonia, and of the rising of Barcelona; and, finally, that no person should be prosecuted for the present émeute. The regent listened with patience and attention, and replied with calmness, and in

moderate language; but he granted none of the conditions. He stated that the law, of which he saw himself the defender, admits of no treaty with illegality and revolt; that the battalions of factious operatives must immediately lay down their arms, and that the national guard must evacuate the citadel and forts; that it was for the guilty to save themselves, if they could, from the sword of justice, and not for him to guarantee their safety; that no one had a right to dictate to the government the choice or exclusion of public functionaries and generals: that, in fine, with respect to the manufacturers, the Cortes deliberates upon the interests which concern them, and that he himself would consider what was best for Catalonia. He terminated his speech with a threat to bombard the city.

On the evening before the arrival of the regent, a mere common occurrence caused much irritation among the people, and furnished the republicans with a plea for exciting the passions of the lower orders. This was the sudden sailing into the harbour of the British ship of war, the *Formidable*; and it was alleged that she had come with Congreve rockets, to destroy the city and its manufactures. When this colossus, however, was shortly seen imbedded on a sand-bank, the imprecations which had greeted her in-coming were changed into exclamations of joy. Thanks to the English whig ministry of ten years, for having caused the very radicals of Spain to loathe the British name! Evans's legion is now a by-word in the Peninsula; and its ill success has left an ugly impression upon Spanish minds, which it will take a century of peace to erase.

Although the junta displayed an inclination to make terms with the regent, the circumstance of the members which composed it having been received graciously on board the French ships in the harbour by the consul of that nation, M. Lesseps, and then allowed to return to the

city, prevented all thought of an amicable adjustment on the part of his highness. A certain number of the disaffected also intrenched themselves with provisions and arms in the fort Pio, declaring they would resist to the last extremity; and this audacity, combined with the leaning to the insurgents on the part of M. Lesseps, determined Espartero to demand a surrender of the city 'at discretion,'—notwithstanding an application to him from all the European consuls at Barcelona, that he would not commence bombarding, and thus accomplish the common destruction of Spanish and foreign merchandise there most extensively accumulated in the warehouses. After issuing a proclamation to this effect, the regent refused to receive the bishop of Barcelona and cura of San Pablo, as deputies of the people; and when those venerable persons had returned thus repulsed, the 'somaten' was again sounded, to announce 'to all Catalonia,' that the Barcelonese would, rather than give themselves up to be shot like dogs, prefer meeting the fate of men in battle, with arms in their hands. 'He who is not a Catalan, has no notion of the effect produced, (writes a recent visiter,) when that terrible signal of a general rising rings out its formidable summons. It speeds like the fiery cross of former days did among the Highlands of Scotland, and calls on all to arouse, as one man, in defence of their hearths, their wives, and their children. Whatever the divisions of party in Catalonia, that which first rings the somaten acquires a vast advantage. With the rapidity of the telegraph, the sound of the bells in the first church is taken up by those in the one nearest, and thence by the next, until the signal is carried over every mountain, and into every valley.' Shortly after the last desperate decision had been acted on, a party of the national guard made a sortie, and had the boldness to attack a part of the escort of the regent between San Pablo and Barcelona; and the regent

instantly (11 o'clock on the morning of December 3), commenced bombarding. Until two on the following morning the attack continued; during which period 817 projectiles were thrown in with dreadful effect. 'The aspect of the place early on the 4th,' writes an eyewitness, 'was of the most melancholy kind. The pavement torn up in the streets for the purpose of forming barricades; the woollen and cotton goods taken from the warehouses of merchants, and heaped up in piles to deaden the effect of the shot and shells; beds, mattresses, and every description of household furniture, were employed to form some shelter against those terrible missiles. The houses of a square whereon the municipality stands, were particularly damaged; and fires had broken out in different quarters, which in all probability would extend their ravages.'

The regent stayed the bombardment on the morning of the 4th; a course prompted to a considerable degree by the pouring in of militia from towns many leagues distant. The somaten had brought them to the relief of Barcelona; and it was now resolved to accept the conditions originally proposed by the insurgents. These conditions secured the lives and property of the citizens; and at midday of the 4th, the troops of Espartero, without himself, entered Barcelona, and took possession of the citadel and other strong positions. The extreme radicals, having now accused the national guard of betraying their interests, fell upon that militia body; and it was requisite for the regular troops to drive off or seize some of the rabble. Order was no sooner restored, than a bando, or proclamation, was issued by Vau Halen, commanding the leaders of the revolutionary junta to be delivered up for trial by the political chief or by court-martial, as they were respectively civil or military persons; and the edict having been complied with, thirteen of the junta and other chiefs of the insurrection were shot, seventy-four were condemned to ten

years' transportation, and 12,000,000 reals (about 12,000*l.*) were to be paid to the crown by the civil authorities (*ayuntamiento*) within eight days, to compensate the loss of military *matériel*. The regent, when he saw quiet perfectly restored, returned with a mere escort to Madrid; which capital he entered in a sort of triumph, January 1, 1843.

In thus concluding our sketch of Spanish annals, we may be allowed, in our historical character, to express a hope, that the rulers of that fine portion of Europe, for which, it has been justly said by a recent visiter, 'nature and the Saracens have done every thing, and the Spaniards nothing,' now that they have a little respite from civil broils, will reflect to some purpose on the causes which have contributed to bring Spain, once amongst the most enlightened and powerful Christian states, down to the level of the very weakest. If History be, as has been said, only 'Experience teaching by examples,' surely the Spanish people have had examples sufficient, and frequent, and terrible before them, whence to draw wisdom against the future; and although their country has been for centuries depressed, more through the indolence and inactivity of its inhabitants, than through any fault of its rulers, it has natural resources which, with a very brief steady attention of governors and governed to their own and its real interests, will enable it to rise Phoenix-like from its ashes, to 'power solid as sublime.' The regent-duke is of small stature, and naturally of a delicate constitution, having been all his life affected with hæmoptysis, or a spitting of blood.

THE SIKHS UNDER KURRUCK, NAO NEHAL, AND SHERE SINGH.—KURRUCK SINGH, though regarded as of weak intellects, was elected to the musnud as the successor of his father, Runjeet, in June, 1839; but he was scarcely seated on the throne, when an insurrection began in Lahore, having for its object to supplant Kur-

ruck by his own son, Nao Nehal, a fierce and dissolute youth, who had some share in the conspiracy, and took advantage of it to rule in his father's name. Indeed, as Kurruck died suddenly, 'of fever,' November 5, 1840, it was currently reported that the unprincipled Nao Nehal had poisoned his parent, to obtain sole power. On his accession, NAO NEHAL SINGH made a treaty with the Nepaul chiefs against the British; and lord Auckland, the Indian governor-general, ordered 20,000 men towards the Sutlej, to meet the coming storm. The march of this force, however, was stayed by a most singular event—no less an one than the death of Nao Nehal Singh. While proceeding to the river Ravee to make his ablutions, on his return from the funeral-obsequies of his father—that father whom it was thought he had murdered—a beam fell from a lofty archway under which he was passing, and killed him on the spot! This was on the day after Kurruck's decease; and Nao Nehal's party instantly declared the throne vacant, until his widowed sultana, the Rancee Chund Kuar, should give birth to a posthumous child. This, however, proved a trick of the faction of the queen-mother to gain time, as the sultana was a simply betrothed little matron of seven years old; and SHERE SINGH, a natural son of Runjeet, raised an armed force to eject her. The city of Lahore fell to his troops, accordingly, January 16, 1841; and he was soon after acknowledged sovereign, by the titles of Raj Künwur Shere Singh, rajah of the Punjaub, and king of Lahore. Shere Singh had been governor of Cachemire under his father; but he had managed his province so ill, and displayed such rebellious notions, that the maharajah (mighty prince) recalled him in disgrace, and till Runjeet's death he had lived in obscurity. As the party of the Rancee was still powerful (30,000 men being in arms in the Punjaub, under different chiefs), Shere Singh began his rule by an adherence to his father's policy,

namely, that of maintaining a strict alliance with the British. Often had Runjeet been taunted by his officers for his attachment to the Anglo-Indians; and he as constantly put down all opposition by firmly declaring, 'that the British were the only foreigners who kept their word—and that their faith in treaties would ever make them powerful.' He even laughed outright, when it was once proposed to him in durbar (council), to keep troops on our frontier, because his treasure-fort was on that side; and no bait of gold on the part of the native princes, avaricious as Runjeet was known to be, could ever tempt him to unite with them against the British. In pursuance, therefore, of his parent's views, Shere Singh readily assisted the Anglo-Indians, when solicited to co-operate with them during their occupation of Kaubul; and, after the disasters and massacres there, he most ably aided in the second invasion of Afghanistan, 1842, especially in carrying the dangerous passes between northern India and Jellalabad, and in thus conveying relief to the beleaguered general Sale. In June, 1842, the slaves of the queen-mother (the mother of Nao Nehal Singh) fell upon and assassinated her; a catastrophe which, however induced, terminated the party of the Ranee, and made Shere Singh's path more clear of opposition. In fact, that brave scion of Runjeet's house may now be regarded as undisputed 'maharajah;' and it is most probable that, should the perfidious and furious Ukhbar Khan lead the Afghan tribes, as he has threatened, to Lahore, to inflict punishment on the Sikh nation for its aid of the British in the late war, the Anglo-Indian government will be as prompt to succour Shere Singh, as Shere Singh was to aid and carry out the designs of the Anglo-Indian government.

KAUBUL UNDER DOST MOHAMMED CONTINUED, AND UNDER SHUJAH-OL-MULK RESTORED.—We continue our history of the Afghan people, from

p. 321 of the present volume. The influence and abilities of Dost Mohammed soon enabled him to bring into subjection the chieftains who had raised independent standards in Kandahar and Peshawur; and he had contrived, by the close of the year 1837 (having been then sole amir for thirteen years), to bring under his rule the whole state of Ahmed, save what the Sikhs had captured, and the districts of Herat and Balkh before named. In 1838, the Anglo-Indian government commenced paying an attention to Kaubul affairs; a course which was eventually, however, to bring terrible calamities upon the British nation. The siege of Herat (see *Persia under Mohammed Mirza*) had no sooner been raised in that year, than lord Auckland, the governor-general of the British territories in Hindustan, came to the determination of dethroning Dost Mohammed, and of restoring Shah Shujah-ol-Mulk, after an exile from his country of thirty years. The plea for this proceeding was, that the success of the English in compelling the Persians to leave Herat, had not, as had been anticipated, restored British influence at the court of Teheran; and the placing of Kaubul, therefore, under one on whose fidelity they could rely, a confidence they considered they could not safely repose in the Dost, appeared to the Anglo-Indian governor and his council the only chance left of strengthening the barrier between Russia and the British settlements in India—it having long been the fashion (simply, we firmly believe, through the suggestions of English newspaper editors, whose influence over the public mind is more universal and powerful than is commonly supposed) to think the czars had an eye upon Hindustan.

In thus deciding on giving its aid towards what was supposed would be a strengthening of the Afghan power under the old dynasty, with a view to make it capable of resisting Persia, the Anglo-Indian government

acted upon the presumption that the Russians had encouraged the seizure of Herat by the Persians (who had in view, in that enterprise, the recovery of their ancient province of Khorasan, of which Herat is the capital), merely that their own road might be thrown open, through the dominions of an ally entirely in their power, to Hindustan. 'Could the emperor Nicolas once display his ensigns on the ramparts of Herat,' argued the 'newspaper' suspects of Muscovite integrity, 'he might inscribe over its portals, 'The road to Hindustan,' as confidently as his grandmother, Catherine II., had placed the vaunting announcement, 'This is the way from Moscow to Byzantium,' over the southern gate of Kherson. It is in truth the road which has been followed by every invader of India on the Asiatic side, from Alexander to Nadir Shah. From Asterabad, on the Caspian (the exclusive navigation of which was yielded by Persia to Russia, 1828), to Herat, if the Persian territory be open, is a direct road of 450 English miles, interrupted by no natural obstacle, after the mountains of Mazanderan are crossed at the commencement of the march. From Herat to Kandahar is 290 miles, through a country unincumbered by mountains, along the valleys of the Furrakhrood and Helmuad rivers; thence, by Ghuzni, to Kaubul, 230, the most mountainous portion of the way; from Kaubul to Attock, on the Indus, 180; thence, through the Punjab, crossing three of its five rivers (whence its name), 180 more to Lahore, the Sikh capital; and from Lahore to Delhi, during which last division of the journey the two remaining rivers of the Punjab have to be crossed, 270 miles. The total distance from the Russian town of Asterabad to the capital of one of England's tributary princes in Hindustan, is thus 1600 miles.

The governor-general Auckland's decision being made, a competent force of British troops, sepoy, and

Sikhs, the last-named led on by their maharajah, Runjeet Singh, in person, marched, under the chief command of sir John Keane, from Hindustan into the Afghan country, and arrived before Ghuzni, the ancient capital of the conqueror Mahmud, and the strongest fortress of Modern Asia, on the 21st of July, 1839. No obstacle had been opposed to the march of the invading army; and it was almost doubtful whether the proper arrangements had been made at this formidable citadel, to insure its defence. Upon nearing the walls, however, a spirited cannonading began upon the advanced portion of the combined troops; but the shells of the invaders compelled the Ghuznevites for the present to silence, and the British, as each battalion arrived, went into bivouac, and obtained some hours' very necessary refreshment of sleep. At daybreak, on the 22d, a close reconnoissance of the place was effected; and as the great gate was accessible, it was determined to undermine and blow it up. This service was effected by the Bombay engineers; and an ingress into the city being thus obtained, a very sanguinary conflict commenced. The Afghan defenders, however, were at length overpowered; and, in two hours from the moment of the gate's destruction, the great fortress, though possessing a garrison of 3500 men, commanded by Mohammed Hyder, a son of the Dost, capitulated. Guns, ammunition, and stores in abundance, together with the governor and his whole zenana (harem), fell into the hands of the British; and after insuring the acceptance of Shah Shujah by the citizens, sir John, leaving a competent force in the citadel, commenced his march on the 30th upon Kaubul.

On the approach towards that capital, August 6th, it was found that Dost Mohammed, resolved on risking a pitched battle, had drawn up his army in an advantageous position, to await the arrival of his enemy. The British, however, were scarcely in

sight, when the bulk of his troops laid down their arms, and joined them; and the Dost, seeing the ruin of his cause, took precipitately to flight in the direction of Bamian, accompanied by his body-guard or staff. On the 7th, therefore, sir John Keane entered Kaubul without opposition, accompanied by Shùjah-ol-Mulk; and when the shah appeared once more safely seated on his throne, the British general went in search of the numerous Barukzye chieftains, friends and functionaries of the Dost, and compelled them to relinquish their usurped authority. The grand total of British and Sikhs, in killed, wounded, and missing, in the affair of Ghuzni, was under 200, officers and men. Sir John, when the intelligence of his success had arrived in England, was created a British peer, by the title of Baron Keane; lord Auckland being, at the same time, raised to the dignity of an earl.

The Dost, though deprived of his usurped throne, was soon enabled to appear in arms for its recovery. The mountain tribes of Kaubul live entirely by plundering the parties travelling along the valleys; and being in the constant exercise of the rifle and musket, they make the most active and effective guerilla troops in the world. With 7000 of these hill-men, the Dost suddenly began skirmishing with the British in the autumn of 1840; but though he hoped to regain all by this species of warfare, he was at length forced to give his enemies battle at Purwan, north of the city of Kaubul, on November the 2nd. The result was most disastrous to his troops, whom the combined British and Sikhs beat at all points; and the Dost was once more compelled to fly into the Kohistan country. Thither the gallant sir Robert Sale pursued him, and, after numerous stormings and captures, forced him to think of yielding to the British. So hopeless, indeed, did Mohammed now find his cause, that he soon after came with a small escort to Kaubul, and surrendered

himself, attendants, and zenana, to sir William Macnaghten, the English envoy. Thus, after two years of negotiation and fight, the Anglo-Indian government established its point; and Shùjah-ol-Mulk became once more undisputed possessor of the throne of his ancestor Ahmed.

It must be confessed that Shah Shùjah, although restored against the wishes of the main body of the Afghans, who were especially indignant at the interference of the 'Feringhees' with their affairs, and at the presence of a large overawing 'Feringhee' army, began with legislating wisely for his own future security, and his people's welfare. His first labour was to reconcile the jarring chiefs to himself and each other; and he made some very judicious appointments to offices, with that important object in view. But his task was one of extreme difficulty, filled as the country was with conflicting tribes, all now equal in power, and disinclined more than ever to yield submission to one common ruler. The labour of the British on the occasion was great, to reconcile some parties, and to beat others into obedience; and it could alone have been attempted on the ground of the supposed value of Kaubul, as a barrier against Persia, and her ally Russia, if preserved entire. Such a view might have been judicious, taken at the period of Shah Shùjah's dethronement; but the Afghans, having had time to restore their tribal system, were gradually settling into as many petty states as they had tribes. So might they soon have become a far securer barrier between Persia and India, than any one semi-barbaric power, liable to be brought over in a mass to Persian interests, can prove. The wildest mountain-tribes (called collectively *Ooloots*) having, at the dismemberment of Kaubul by Runjeet Singh and the Barukzye tribe, established separate communities, the Ghilzies, and others, who had never settled in the plains, but had been forced to become tributary to their brethren

who had so settled, now especially infested the restored shah, and his friends the British. They were, however, easily defeated when troublesome, until an act of extraordinary hazard on the part of sir William Macnaghten, the before-mentioned British civil director of affairs in Kaubul, occasioned a party of them to rise in rebellion on the morning of November 2nd, 1841. It had been found necessary to pay the tribe of Ghilzie an annual tribute or salary of 4000*l.* to keep open the mountain passes between the fortresses of Kaubul and Jellalabad; but, on a sudden, sir William gave orders for discontinuing the stipend, and he even authorized the destruction of a Ghilzie fort that, being in the said passes, might possibly be turned against the English troops. The severity exercised by the commander of the party sent to perform this work of demolition, is said to have been the proximate cause of the first outbreak; but the remote one was clearly the resolution to abolish the tribute. It was three weeks before November 2nd, that the Ghilzie chiefs had come to Kaubul to receive an instalment of the said pass-money, and had been boldly told it must cease. They stayed some days, endeavouring to induce sir William to continue it; but he resolutely refused to do so. On the last day of the chiefs' remaining in the city, a Ghilzie boatman, a highly intelligent and sensible fellow, who had been hired by an English officer to take care of a beautiful little skiff he had on the river, came hastily to his master in the cantonments, saying he hoped the tribute would not be withheld, as he had just heard the principal Ghilzie chief, Mohammed Khan, make a vow, 'that if he did not get the money before the sun had sunk beneath the crest of the mountains of the west, he and his whole tribe would rise in terrible vengeance against the whole race of Feringhees.' The same man assured the officer that Mohammed Khan had

even gone down on his knees to sir William, intreating him to revoke his determination, and warning him of the active hostility it would create among his people; but that it was of no avail. The result of sir William's misguided and blindfold policy awfully corresponded to the threat of the Ghilzie chieftain; nevertheless the outbreak seems to have been wholly unexpected. It began in Kaubul itself; where a murderous attack was made on a party of English officers, who had been at durbar in the evening of Nov. 1st. Sir Alexander Burnes, his brother, and lieutenant Broadfoot, were massacred almost as soon as it was daylight on the 2nd; all the city was in confusion; the bazaars were then plundered, the treasury pillaged, and the houses of the British more especially ransacked. The English force being divided, part of them in cantonments five miles from the city, a portion in a town yet further off, and a mere detachment being in Kaubul, no resistance of importance could be made against the multitudinous insurgents for seventeen days; during which similar disturbances broke out in other towns. The chief fortresses in Kaubul then held by the British, were Kaubul, Ghuzni, Jellalabad, and Kandahar. On the 4th, Charekur, a small fortress north of Kaubul, was besieged, and a whole regiment of the shah's cut to pieces; and on the 5th, captain Woodburn, while proceeding from Ghuzni to Kaubul with 120 men, fell in with a large body of the insurgents, and the whole of the little band were massacred. General Sale, who had gone with a brigade just previously to the insurrection, to force the tribes to open, as heretofore, the Jellalabad passes, found the matter a most arduous one: he was compelled to fight his way to Gundamuck, along defiles where the mountaineers fired upon him from the heights in every direction; and after suffering a great loss of men, and himself getting wounded, he at length reached Jellalabad, and

set about adding to its fortifications by a mud enceinte, and otherwise strengthening it to the best of his ability.

But to return to Kaubul. Shah Shùjah, at the outbreak of the insurrection on the evening of November 1st, escaped (or affected to do so) to the Balla Hissar, (literally *high-castle*, as balcony means *high-room*,) a citadel on a hill to the eastward of the city, whence he sent his son to relieve the British. On the 2d, sir William Macnaghten, then in the cantonment five miles from Kaubul, obtained the shah's leave for shelling the town from the Balla Hissar; for which purpose, brigadier Shelton and captain Nicholl entered the fort with proper troops, and began bombarding. The infuriated populace of Kaubul hereon made an assault upon, and got possession of, the commissariat fort, lying ill-defended at the north of the town; and this proved the first dreadful blow to the English in the cantonment, who had at the time flour but for two days in their possession. Another fort, in which some commissariat stores were kept, was also attacked; and after a defence of three days by captain Mackenzie, and the loss of a few men, a panic seized the troops in the cantonment. This was no wonderful issue; since the soldiery, mostly sepoys, found themselves, in the beginning of winter, (and that severe in Kaubul,) shut up in a valley 200 miles from the Indus, without sufficient clothing or food, and amid a fanatical Moslem population. According to the received accounts, sir William Macnaghten now proposed to general Elphinstone (commander of the forces) the recall of the soldiers from the Balla Hissar, and urged a decided attack on the enemy; but the general, declaring that the troops were insufficient for such a proceeding, simply contended for some days with the enemy in skirmishes, and at length withdrew the party from the Balla Hissar, leaving Shah Shùjah to his own resources. As notice was at this moment known

to be received, by the general, of succour from Kandahar, the rebels appeared disposed to negotiate for the withdrawal of the British troops; but when it was soon after clear that the Kandahar brigade had been driven back, and that no aid could be expected from general Sale, then at Jellalabad, and not till then, sir William Macnaghten agreed to meet the insurgents on the subject of a treaty. The second and favourite son of Dost Mohammed, Mohammed Ukhbar Khan (more commonly but incorrectly written Akhbar), who, since his father's surrender, had remained in concealment beyond the confines of Afghanistan, now that the rising of the hill tribes, and of the Kaubul people generally had taken place, suddenly appeared at Kaubul, as the leader in any negotiations that might take place. After various parleys, a message was, on December 22, brought to sir William at the cantonment from Ukhbar, requesting an interview with him on the following morning; and sir William (to whom, in 1840, Ukhbar Khan's father, the Dost, had surrendered), accompanied by captains Lawrence, Trevor, and Mackenzie, met the chieftain at a previously arranged spot, December 23. Sir William and Ukhbar had conversed together about five minutes, when a signal was given by the latter, who had laid an ambuscade for the envoy, and the three captains were seized, and forced to mount behind some Ghilzie chiefs. Sir William was instantly shot dead by Ukhbar Khan himself; while a Ghazee (a sect of religious enthusiasts, descended from a remnant of the assassins of Casbin, as described in vol. i., p. 493, and who, if killed by those whom they seek, out of political or religious hatred, to immolate, are called *Shuhdces*, martyrs), on seeing captain Trevor slip from the horse on which he had been placed, hewed him down with his sabre, and killed him. The head of the envoy was then cut off by the brutal Ghazees, and the mouth being filled with a portion of his mutilated

body, it was decorated with the green spectacles which sir William used to wear, and in that state placed in the Great Bazaar to be spit upon by the Moslims. It was then paraded through the streets, and was finally fixed upon the great gate of Kaubul. Captains Lawrence and Mackenzie, who had not resisted, were eventually released, and returned to the cantonment on December 28th. Major Pottinger, known for his defence of Herat, then took charge of the British mission; and the negotiations for the withdrawal of the troops were resumed. But to Ukhbar, as to all Easterns, the willingness to treat, after receiving such deep injuries, only proved the weakness of his opponents; and, satisfied that he had them in his power, all the misfortunes of himself and his family were now, in the true spirit of a Moslim, to be avenged. Doubtless, with the heroic Zanga, he cried, 'Oh, Mahomet, be propitious on this important hour, and give my famished soul revenge!' He dissembled, however, and agreed to a convention (whereby, on resigning their guns, magazines, and treasures—all save their muskets, and a few cartridges—and giving hostages, the British were free to depart unmolested to the frontier), which general Elphinstone and major Pottinger signed; but which general Palmer, who still held Ghuzni, and general Sale, at Jellalabad, refused to subscribe, when sent to them. Ukhbar, nevertheless, assented, with suspicious facility, to the departure of the soldiers of the cantonment towards Jellalabad; and on January 6th, 1842, they began their march. The schemes of Ukhbar then became evident: he had despatched emissaries to the parts through which the unfortunate soldiery had to pass, calling on the people to rise *en masse*, 'and slay the infidels.' His call was not made in vain. The retreating army (which was dreadfully impeded by snow that lay four feet deep) was set upon by an overwhelming and murderous force of Ghilzies, and

other mountain tribes; Ukhbar Khan himself appearing among them at intervals, and affecting to objugate with them on account of their violence. He is indeed affirmed to have, on these occasions, first given out orders aloud to desist (so vociferously, that the British officers, who necessarily understood Persian, might hear him), in the Persian tongue, and then to have issued directions to the Afghans in Pushtu (the national language) 'to destroy the Kafirs, and not let a dog of them escape.' On entering the first narrow pass, the elephants and camels of the English, on being fired on from the heights, rushed through the troops to escape, overturning and trampling down every thing in their way. In the confusion thus produced, the Afghans shot down the harassed soldiery in heaps, obliging the survivors to surrender a fresh portion of officers as hostages at every station, to save an universal carnage. It was especially in the pass of Jugdulluk, that this harass, massacre, and slaughter, took place. At the celebrated pass called 'The Khyber,' even hostages did not save the discomfited troops, who were cut down in hundreds by the blood-thirsty Khyberies, a notorious plundering hill-tribe; and only one person, Dr. Brydon, a regimental surgeon, together with a private soldier, is alleged, out of 6000 (English and sepoys) and 7000 camp-followers, 13,000 in all, who quitted Kaubul, to have reached Jellalabad to tell the fatal tale. Major Pottinger, general Elphinstone, and captains Mackenzie and Lawrence, were among the hostages; all of whom, with fifteen ladies (ladies Sale and Macnaghten included), were conveyed prisoners by Ukhbar himself to the fortress of Badjabad, in the Lughman country. Great numbers of the sepoys perished in the snow, unable to bear the rigorous winter of Afghanistan.

When intelligence reached Bombay of the barbarous death of their governor-elect, sir. William Mac-

naughten, a general mourning, to continue three weeks, was ordered to be observed throughout the presidency; and lord Auckland's last acts of authority, as governor-general, were (on seeing the hazardous position of general Sale at Jellalabad) the issuing of a spirited manifesto against Ukhbar Khan's treacherous conduct, the promulgation of an order for adding 26,000 men to the Kaubul army, and a prompt command to general Pollock to advance with a competent force to Peshawur, on the Afghan frontier.

In a subsequent attempt made from the India side by the British (53d and 64th) and Sikhs, under colonels Wild and Moseley, Jan. 16th, 1842, to force the pass between Jumrood and Jellalabad, to relieve general Sale, the Khyberries, from the precipitous hills, hurled down masses of rock upon the soldiery, and picked out, from behind breastworks of stone, every officer that came near enough for a shot to take effect. Colonel Wild, though severely wounded in the mouth, still proceeded, and on one occasion beat down a stockade, and slew all the Afghans it had sheltered; but the Sikhs at length became terrified and ran, the camels, as before, overturned and trod down every thing, and the gallant colonel was compelled to return, and that with no inconsiderable loss, to his camp at Jumrood. From that time, till the arrival of a fresh army in the Spring, no further attempt was made upon the pass; but on April 5th it was gallantly forced by general Pollock (who had just narrowly escaped death at Peshawur, by the fall of a house, through a shock of earthquake), with 8000 men, mostly sepoys and Sikhs, who thus conquered twenty-eight miles of narrow posts and defiles, and won that key to Kaubul and its Swiss territory of mountain, ravine, and valley, which the great Nadir Shah had been obliged to purchase with gold. Out of terror of the Afghans, there was a great deal of desertion on first enter-

ing the pass; but when the general was enabled to point, in the fields the murdered bodies of their late companions to his men (the Afghans having killed them, and exposed them to the birds), a stop was put to the panic, and success was the issue. On the approach of the victorious band towards Jellalabad, where Ukhbar Khan was still (and had been so all the winter) encamped with 6000 men before sir Robert Sale's position, the wily chieftain ordered a *feu-de-joie* to be fired by his whole force on the 6th, to induce sir Robert's belief of the British having been defeated in the pass; but sir Robert, supposing the demonstration a mere *ruse*, and choosing to guess the result to be what it really had been, made a sally with his whole force upon the Afghan camp, at day-break of April 7th. The issue was the complete defeat and rout of Ukhbar and his army (though with the death, at the first onset, of colonel Dennie, a gallant leader of the assault), the burning of his camp, and the recapture of the guns which the enemy had seized in the murderous retreat from Kaubul. Ukhbar was accidentally wounded in escaping, by one of his own men, whom the attendant chiefs instantly punished for the deed by roasting him alive! The various news was at the same time received at Jellalabad, that Shah Shujah (who had still retained the throne) had been assassinated; that general England had failed in his attempt to convey a reinforcement of 2500 men, with a convoy of 6000 camels, 100,000*l.* in money, and 600,000 ball-cartridges, with a view to relieve general Nott at Kandahar; that general Elphinstone had died in his captivity, worn out by harass of mind; and that general Palmer and his starved garrison at Ghuzni, had been compelled to surrender, in March, to the Afghans, with the promise of safeconduct to Kaubul—though the villainous Ghazees instantly set upon, and butchered the 27th regiment of native infantry, in-

cluding some of the officers and their wives.

General Pollock effected a junction with general Sale's troops at Jellalabad, April 16th; and general England succeeded in a second attempt to reinforce general Nott, after severely defeating a large army of the enemy at Hykulzie, on which he had advanced from Scinde towards Kandahar, on the 28th. It was now believed (whether so or otherwise) that Shah Shūjah had remained faithful to the British cause; and that, having succeeded in making the Ooloos (or tribal Afghans) and especially the Barukzyes, friendly, as he supposed, to his cause, he had been able to calculate on raising 25,000 soldiers, whom he purposed mustering and reviewing at Seah Sung, and then proceeding with them to relieve sir Robert Sale. 'With this view (says a Persian writer) the king took forth his tents, and having made his preparations, and put on his dress of ceremony, entered his khasah (state-chair, borne by bearers), and went forth out of Kaubul by the gate which leads to Seah Sung; but on the road near Shia Shakeef, Shūjah-ud-dowlah, the son of Nūwab Zeman Khan, a Barukzye, had placed in ambush fifty juzailchees. When the king's retinue reached the spot, the ambush fired: whereon two balls struck the king, one in the head, and the other in the breast; and falling back in the kasah, he died almost instantly. Five of the bearers and seven of the escort were shot dead at the same moment. Shūjah-ud-dowlah now came up to the king's khasah, and took away his crown and jewels, and then rode off with his juzailchees in pursuit of Shahzada Futteh Jung, the second son of Shah Shūjah, who, on hearing of his father's murder, had fled back towards Kaubul, and taken refuge with Mahmud Khan Beeyat, chief of one of the tribes. Mahmud, with his adherents, supported his cause, and on the next day, April 4th, proclaimed him the successor of Shah Shūjah, at the Balla Hissar.

Thus treacherously, it must be supposed, fell Shah Shūjah-ol-mulk, in his 61st year, April 3d, 1842.

For some time the united force remained quiet at Jellalabad, without advancing on Kaubul, through the want of baggage-camels it was said. In this interval, captain Mackenzie, one of Ukhbar Khan's prisoners, arrived on parole, to negotiate for the release of himself and the other captives, including the ladies; but the exorbitant terms asked by the Afghans were rejected. A bold attack was then made by the enemy, on May 21st, upon the fortress of Kelati-Ghilzie, garrisoned by a portion of general Nott's army, under the immediate command of captain Craigie. The Afghans, 2000 in force, advanced to the assault in the most determined manner, with thirty scaling-ladders; but after an hour's hard fighting, they were repulsed and driven down the hill, losing five standards (one of which had been three times planted in an embrasure), and leaving 104 dead bodies on the sloping ground. Upwards of 100 more were carried off the field dead by their companions; while the loss of the besieged was only six wounded sepoys. As the fortress was retained rather to the injury than the advantage of the British, a force under colonel Wymer was despatched soon after this victory, from Kandahar, by general Nott, which joined the garrison in destroying it, and then returned to its headquarters. In the same interval arrived false intelligence of the decease of general Palmer, in his imprisonment after the Ghuzni surrender, and true of the fall of the Balla Hissar to Ukhbar Khan. That amir had breathed the walls on the 10th of June; and the Arabs and other soldiery of king Futteh Jung thereupon begged him to surrender, which he did. It should be mentioned that this pride had assumed the sceptre of his father, because his elder brother had relinquished his claim, alarmed at the anarchy which prevailed; and Ukhbar Khan, on finding

him yield, succumbed, with his usual policy, to Afghan prejudices, in favour of an hereditary monarchy, and assured him that he had not intended to dethrone him, but simply to seize the office of wussecr. Thus, in an instant, in possession of money, guns, and provisions, the amir removed his lady-prisoners from Charekar, where they had recently been kept, to the city of Kaubul itself; allowing them, it was affirmed, as much liberty as their state of hostage-imprisonment would permit. Upon this unexpected success of Ukhbar Khan, a rumour became prevalent that the governor-general, lord Ellenborough, had resolved, as if suddenly chilled in spirit by the maxim of the timid Roman orator, '*Iniquissimam pacem, justissimo bello anteferre,*' instantly to withdraw the British troops from their fortresses in Afghanistan; and it was alleged that the low state of the Indian treasury called imperatively for this course. However true or false the ground of the report, it had the effect of inducing prince Sufter Jung, the youngest son of the late Shah Shujah, to attack his deceased father's friends. Thinking to surprise general Nott during the absence of colonel Wymer with more than a third of the garrison, he approached the cantonments, about a mile from Kandahar, with 6000 men, mostly cavalry in the service of Ukhbar Khan, May 29th. Colonel Stacey was instantly despatched with the 42d and 43d Bengal Native Infantry and four guns, to reconnoitre the ground: these were quickly followed by the Queen's 41st, together with eight guns and about 300 irregular horse. About one o'clock in the afternoon, the heights on which the enemy were posted were stormed, under a heavy fire of artillery. The Afghans were speedily driven from their ground, and dispersed in every direction. They were hotly pursued by the irregular horse under lieutenant Chamberlain, who dashed in and did great execution amongst the retreating infantry. This part of the

action was scarcely over, when the hills just beyond appeared covered with large masses of the enemy. These were quickly attacked and beaten, and they retired with precipitation into the Bahawullee pass, where the flight of the enemy was in part cut off by a field-work intended to prevent the advance of the English, and a heavy carnage ensued. The British had in all forty-two wounded, while the enemy's loss in killed was estimated at about 400. An order had meanwhile been issued for the preparation of about 1000 cavalry and 2000 infantry, to hold themselves in readiness to join colonel Wymer on his return, and proceed on an expedition requiring fifteen days' provisions to be taken along with them, —the destination being kept secret till after the march. Colonel Wymer having returned on June the 7th, bringing with him the garrison of the destroyed Kelat-i-Ghilzie, the force just named moved out to join him beyond the walls, and proceeded on their march on the 12th. They were to destroy the strongholds of the insurgent chiefs around, and proceed to relieve Ghirisk—a fortress on the Helmund, about eighty miles to the westward, which had been held for nearly a twelvemonth by Bulwunt Sing, the Sikh, and 100 sepoys. How they came to have been left so long in a post of so much danger, whose maintenance was wholly useless, it appears difficult to imagine; but the decision of the English to relieve them soon induced Sufter Jung to consider his enemies as too powerful; and on the 19th, he and a number of the insurgent chiefs, surrendered themselves to general Nott. This prince was the youngest, the favourite, and the most worthless of the sons of Shah Shujah; and his dissipation was formerly of that brutal cast at which even the dissolute were scandalized. He resided at Kandahar with his brother Timur Shah, the nominal governor, till the beginning of January, 1842, when he left the city, and joined the insurgent chief,

Atta Mahomed, then in arms against us. The defection of Sufter Jung, after the immense sacrifice made by the British nation to restore his family, is one among the many proofs that may be adduced of the folly of the Afghan war. No reliance is to be placed by a Christian on the word of a Moslim; and there is great wonder that Shah Shùjah himself remained faithful to us,—a thing itself which many still doubt. Because, in the middle ages, a Salâddin was to be trusted, the English are apt to think the main body of followers of the Islam in like manner observant of promises; but the Koran makes all oaths to the enemies of the faith (that is, all not of it) of no effect. To trap and trick a Christian is regarded one of the first duties of a Mohammedan.

On the 30th of July, 1842, the Kandahar army, in spite of all rumours to the contrary, received the welcome order from Lord Ellenborough at Allahabad, to move forwards upon Kaubul. Amply supplied with *materiel*, and, at length, with beasts of burden, this force, under general Nott, was even superior to the army with which general Keane had formerly taken both Kaubul and Ghuzni. Kaubul is 325 miles distant from Kandahar; and, in quitting the latter, the British destroyed the fortifications, thereby abandoning the position. The overplus cartridges, &c., of the army were so vast in amount, that their blowing up shook the city like an earthquake, and made the inhabitants think the garrison had turned upon them. General England, by the same orders, marched (without encountering any obstacle) back from Kandahar to Quetta, with the remainder of the troops. On September 4th, general Pollock was successful in routing a considerable force of Afghans near Gundamuck; and on the 5th arrived in his camp king Futtel Jung, who had effected his escape from his 'wusseer,' Ukhhar Khan. This event was necessarily regarded as of vast importance; the sovereign was at-

tended by fourteen persons, and was greeted by an ordnance salute of welcome; and his reception was, of course, interpreted into a proof of the British government being favourable to his cause. An ordinance was instantly issued for a rapid move from Gundamuck upon Kaubul on the 7th, so as to coalesce with the force and objects of General Nott. Lord Ellenborough, leaving Allahabad, now took his station (September 10th) at Simla, near to the Sikh capital of Lahore.

General Nott met with no opposition to his progress, until the troops were in the neighbourhood of Ghuzni; when he found Shumsûden, the Afghan governor of that largest fortress of the East, in arms to bar his advance, August 23d. The British drove him back with very little loss on their part, on that day, and on the 30th, in a general engagement with the same functionary, they completely routed his troops, though at the cost of thirty-six killed and sixty-eight wounded. On the 5th of September the city and fortress were invested, and preparations were made for the attack on the following day; but the Afghans evacuating the place during the night, general Nott entered it at day-break, and having planted the British flag on the topmost citadel, began the destruction of the fortifications. A position which, from its great strength, had occasioned the English so much suffering and annoyance throughout the war, and which might still annoy them, was thus rightly visited, according to military notions; although it is to the historian matter of regret that, a fortress, founded by the romantic hero of the tenth and eleventh centuries, Mahmud of Ghuzni, the originator of an empire that made all Asia tremble, could not have been spared. Its best portion had stood nearly 850 years. Before the work of demolition commenced, general Nott took from their hinges, whereon they had turned for more than eight centuries, at the entrance of the tomb

of Mahmud the Great, the celebrated sandal-wood gates, which were wrenched by Mahmud from their posts at the famous Brahmin temple of Somnauth, in Guzerat, when he, for the last time, invaded Hindustan. On that occasion the conqueror, having broken up the large idol of the fane, (in defiance of the prayers, curses, and offers of 'crores of rupees' [millions sterling] to forego his design, on the part of the priests), discovered in its interior such stores of diamonds, pearls, rubies, and other valuables, that the sums offered as ransom were as dust in the balance. Mahmud's mace also, wherewith he struck off the nose of the said idol, was seized by the British; and these and other relics of the Middle Ages were to be conveyed, it was alleged, to Great Britain. By the skill of the engineers, fourteen mines were now sprung in the walls with good effect; the upper part was completely destroyed on the 7th, the second line of works extensively breached, and the outer and lower walls had their revetments blown down; and when the British troops quitted the place on the 9th for Kaubul, the whole of the defences were so shaken as to insure their crumbling to pieces during the coming winter, while the gateways of the town and citadel, and the roofs of all the principal buildings, had been fired, and were still fiercely burning. While the work of demolition was proceeding, general Nott scoured the villages around, and had the gratification of releasing no less than 327 sepoys of the 27th Bengal native infantry, from the slavery to which they had been reduced by the Afghans, when treacherously seized in the unfortunate retreat from Kaubul in the preceding year.

Meanwhile generals Pollock and Sale, on the march to Kaubul from Gundamuck, were opposed on Sept. 8, by a force of Glilzies, and some juzailchees belonging to the army of Mohammed Ukhbar Khan, at a spot near the crest overlooking the pass of Jugdulluk. The enemy were here

drawn up in position to receive them, behind a great many ~~summits~~ or heights, which mutually flanked each other, and completely commanded the road. A charge of the 9th Foot and 13th light infantry up one hill, drove the Afghans from their sun-gahs; while the destruction occasioned by the excellent force of dragoons round the same eminence, put the tenants of the other heights in jeopardy, and soon occasioned a general flight. When the enemy had entirely disappeared, the march was resumed, the Jugdulluk pass was reached, and a barrier of boughs of trees, which had been placed across the road, was removed. The interstices among the boughs were filled with the skeletons of the unfortunate British and sepoys who had fallen in 'the retreat;' and these remains lay in some places so thickly crowded, that they were obliged to be pushed aside to gain a free passage. On the 12th, on arriving at Tezeen, (the identical spot where the first treacherous and murderous attack was made on the British in the retreat from Kaubul), the generals found the passes occupied by the main body of Ukhbar's army, amounting to more than 16,000 men, and led on by that ambitious sirdar himself. A conflict commenced, and the Afghans were driven up the neighbouring hills; from the crests of which they kept up a heavy fire, until colonel Taylor, with a small party, ascended one end of the ridge unperceived by the enemy, and coming unawares upon the astonished Moslims, poured a destructive fire upon their main body, as it fled in consternation down the declivities. A chieftain of high consideration, the brother of Khudabux Khan, was found among the slain. So soon as the Afghans had rallied again below the hills, they commenced furious attacks upon the pickets, and continued them through the night; being always, however, unsuccessful, and losing numbers of their men by the British bayonets—so close were the conflicts. The valley of Tezeen, where the English had

now encamped, is completely encircled by lofty hills; and on the morning of the 15th, it was found that the Afghans occupied in great force every height not already crowned by their opponents. The pass itself of Tezeen affords great advantages to an enemy occupying the heights; and, on the present occasion, Mohammed Ukhbar had neglected nothing to render its natural difficulties as formidable as numbers could make them. The English at length moved cautiously along to the mouth of the pass, supported by artillery; and, before they reached it, were successful in beating off some of the Afghan cavalry, which had descended to the valley in their rear, and seized on their baggage. On reaching the mouth, the enemy was so formidably arranged above, that it was requisite to attempt their dislodgement; and Her Majesty's 9th foot, led by captain Lushington, ascending the hills to the left of the plain, under a heavy cross fire, charged and overthrew their opponents. The defence of the Afghans was obstinate, so that the British bayonet alone in many instances decided the contest. Numerous horses, with their riders, who seemed chiefs by their handsome attire, were left dead upon the declivities, and at the bottom of those steep slopes the slaughter soon became terrific; the Afghans being now resolved that their enemy should not ascend the Huft Kohtul, their most commanding position. One spirit, however, soon pervaded the English; and a determination to conquer, by driving their opponents from this hill, at length overcame the obstinate resistance offered. The Huft Kohtul was carried as if by magic; the victors gave three long and hearty cheers on reaching its summit; and, in a subsequent pursuit, various pieces of ordnance, together with the bullocks which drew them, were captured. Mohammed Ukhbar, Mohammed Shah, and Ameen Oollah, with their followers, took to flight; and the army of general Pollock forthwith pursued its march to Khoord

Kaibul, and there encamped. On September the 16th, the British entered Kaibul without opposition, and planted the royal standard once more on the Balla Hissar; and on the following day Futtah Jung was proclaimed (not by the British, but by his own adherents) king of Kaibul. The success of general Pollock was crowned by intelligence being received on the 17th, that general Nott was within five miles of Kaibul, and by the arrival in that city of major Pottinger, captain Johnson, captain Troup, an European woman, and four private soldiers, some of Ukhbar Khan's prisoners. Mrs. Trevor, captain and Mrs. Anderson, and Dr. Campbell, were in Kaibul when the British entered. The rest of Ukhbar's prisoners were on the road home, with the exception of captain Bygrave, whom the sirdar had, it was supposed, carried off when he fled at Tezeen; and sir Robert Sale, with a highly equipped force, was sent by general Pollock to meet them. Sir Robert returned with them safely to Kaibul on the 20th, 127 in number, including his own heroic wife. They consisted of thirty-four officers, nine ladies, and twenty-two children, fifty-six European soldiers, two clerks, not in the service, and four women. They had been (in common with the thirteen beforenamed) from January 10th, when they were taken charge of by Ukhbar Khan, 231 days in captivity; after having been for seventy days exposed to the most frightful hardships, during the siege and the retreat. It must not be omitted that the Sikhs, under their leader, Shere Singh, faithfully aided the British force under general Pollock throughout the march; and their bravery, together with the devotedness of the Maharajah, led at once to an acknowledgement, on the part of the Anglo-Indian government, of the claim of the latter to succeed his father, Runjeet, on the throne of Lahore. General England, after destroying the defences of Quetta, marched to Dardur, to be ready with his force to re-

ceive the further orders of the governor-general.

It was on October 1st, that the governor-general issued a proclamation from Simla (given in 'India under queen Victoria'), which stated it to be his intention to evacuate Afghanistan, now that it had been sufficiently shown to the world that England was both strong enough, and steadily resolved, to punish those who had given her offence. Now that she had put down a chieftain inimical to British interests, her quarrel with Kaubul was at an end; and she would leave the people of that state, as they had rejected their legitimate ruler when brought back to them by the Anglo-Indians, to choose a sovereign for themselves.

On the 27th of September, captain Bygrave had arrived at Kaubul, having been voluntarily resigned by Ukhbar Khan; so that all the prisoners were now happily restored. And here it must be explained how the restitution of the whole party was effected. Ukhbar Khan had taken captains Troup and Bygrave with him to the battle of Tezeen, September 12th; and so long before as August 25th, he had sent off the other prisoners from Kaubul towards Bamecan, with the exception of Mrs. Trevor, who, on account of illness, was suffered to remain in the city, together with her physician, Dr. Campbell, and her anxious friends captain and Mrs. Anderson. This looked like mercy on Ukhbar's part; and it was alleged that he took the two officers with him to Tezeen, simply that he might have witnesses to his kind conduct, should he fall into the hands of the British. Still it is clear that the mass of prisoners were removed to Bamecan; and it is also pretty evident that their sale into slavery was intended, as will be shown. Bamecan is ninety miles west of Kaubul, on the summit level of the pass leading to Turkistan in Grand Tartary; and the prisoners' escort consisted of 300 Afghans, under the command of Salih Khan, a

chief who had taken service with the English, in the name of Shah Shajah, on their entrance into the country, but who, in October, 1840, deserted their cause for that of Dost Mohammed, which seemed then temporarily in the ascendant. This is ever the policy of Asiatic Moslems, whose incontestable and perennial motto is 'Might is Right.' No faith can bind them to the losing side, even if it include their own family and best friends. The party reached Bamecan September 3d; during the journey to which, the officers had managed to get into the good graces of Salih Khan, the result of which was his acceptance of a promised bribe from the prisoners of 10,000*l.* to carry them in the direction of general Nott's advance. Salih Khan now assured the party his orders from Ukhbar were to slay all such prisoners as were too weak to be carried forward. He, however, placed the party in the two forts of Bamecan; and when fresh commands were received from Ukhbar on the 11th, to proceed to Khulum, together with news of the fall of Ghuzni from another quarter, he put the forts into a state of defence, in hopes of withstanding all attacks from his brother Afghans till help should arrive, and even hoisted the flag of defiance on the battlements. At this juncture arrived a private message from general Pollock at Kaubul, to the effect, that Salih should receive the sum of 2000*l.* at once, and 1200*l.* as an annuity for life, if he would deliver up the prisoners to a detachment of British troops. On the 15th, accounts of the victory at Tezeen reached the prisoners; and a march upon Kaubul being resolved on, they started on the morning of the 16th, and in the evening of that day received a letter from sir Richmond Shakespear, stating that he was on his way with 600 Kuzzilbashs to attempt their release. On the next morning, having crossed the Kallih mountains, they met their intended deliverers, and, uniting with them,

made a forced march to the Helmand, and they made a similar march on the 18th, having the advantage of seventy-seven horses brought to them by Kuzzilbashes. They now learned that the pass of Sufed Koh was occupied by the enemy, but that sir Robert Sale was advancing with a light brigade to their assistance; and great was the joy of the party when they perceived the cavalry of sir Robert approaching. That gallant general had left his infantry in the pass, but had met with no opposition. It was vain to endeavour to describe the scene which now ensued. The meeting of sir Robert Sale (who had himself been for eleven long months, from October 7 to September 17, exposed to siege or battle, with scarcely any interruption), with his heroic wife, and bereaved daughter, Mrs. Sturt, whose husband had fallen after being covered with wounds in the discharge of his duty, might form the subject of an hundred pictures. On the 20th, the whole party once more entered Kaubul. In that city Mrs. Trevor and her friends had been found safe, as we have said, by the British. Captain Troup, on the flight of Ukhbar Khan from Tezeen, pursued his way to Kaubul, and joined the little party of Mrs. Trevor. Captain Bygrave, on the other hand, from an heroic feeling of continuing prisoner with one who had behaved so generously to him (thus it is reported), accompanied the defeated sirdar in his flight towards Kohistan. He remained with that chieftain a fortnight; and he was then sent back by him freely and under escort to Kaubul, September 27th.

Before the evacuation of the country commenced, general Pollock agreed that three weeks should be spent close to the capital by the forces. A report had gained currency that Kaubul was to be treated as Ghuzni had been; in consequence of which the inhabitants, all but the aged and sick, had fled, on the approach of the British, to a man. The general, how-

ever, instantly proclaimed that no resident of the place should be injured; and he prudently ordered that a city, so full of scenes to provoke the bad passions of victorious soldiers, should not be entered by the army. The people, on finding this, speedily returned; and provisions were brought in for the use of the troops in abundance. About 1200 sepoys belonging to the force came into camp on the day of the arrival: many of them were wounded or diseased, some almost naked, and all in a state of extreme destitution. They were a party who had, some fallen behind, and others made their way back from Khoord Kaubul and Tezeen, after the fearful 10th and 11th of January. Numbers of their companions had been sold into slavery, or had died of starvation; and the Afghans had not had time to dispose of the rest, but had left them to beg their living till purchasers of them could be found.

On October the 25th general M'Caskill was despatched with 4000 men towards Kohistan, with the hope of securing Ukhbar Khan, Ameen Oollah, and other leading Afghan chiefs, who were still in arms. The force took the way to Charekar, the scene of one of the British army's saddest misfortunes, an entire regiment of Ghoorkas, in its ranks, having been there annihilated in November, 1841. On the 29th, at a mere village, called Istalif, twenty miles from Kaubul, an immense body of Afghans issued from a fort, under Ameen Oollah himself, and attacked the force, maintaining the contest for a short space with boldness; but at length they were beaten back, and scattered in every direction, after suffering most severely. On the British side, lieutenant Evans, of the Queen's 41st, was killed, and besides four officers wounded, forty-six rank and file were for the most part killed. On entering the fort, stores of muskets and shot, with two guns, formerly belonging to the British, were taken into possession; and the wives

of many of the insurgent chiefs, in compensation for the ladies of England, were made prisoners. Istalif was burned to the ground.

We must here note, that all the British ordnance left at Kaubul at the period of the retreat, was found there by general Pollock, together with the park of artillery captured on the flight of Dost Mohammed, on the original advance of the English in 1839. It should also be recorded that, in the passage of the British army from Gundamuck, the bodies of about two thousand of the unhappy sufferers during the retreat were picked up, (many of them so little decomposed as to be easily recognised,) and buried by their avenging survivors and successors during their evening encampments.

On general McCaskill's return to Kaubul, after scouring the country in vain in search of Ükhbar Khan, who had escaped to Balkh, the day for commencing the evacuation of Afghanistan was fixed by the general-in-chief, Pollock; who at the same moment authorized an act which we cannot but denounce as unnecessary, severe, unchristian, and un-English. This was the destruction of the magnificent and ancient bazaar of the city of Kaubul, which had for nearly two centuries been the emporium of central Asia, and which was erected 1660, during the reign of the Great Mongul, Aurangzeb, by the amir of Ghuzni, Ali Mürdan Khan. The motive alleged for this work of immolation was, that the remains of the late envoy, sir William Macnaghten, had been exposed to public insult in the bazaar. But surely general Pollock should have recollected that a revenge which vents itself uselessly upon inanimate stocks and stones, on places, or buildings, or even dead bodies, must always present to the minds of really civilized men a brutal and irrational appearance. Least of all is it consistent with our notions of civilized justice, when such vengeance turns furiously upon admirable works of art, putting their anti-

quity out of the question, however that would excite veneration in most breasts. Such monuments of skill and splendour (and curious and splendid indeed was the Kaubul bazaar) can scarcely be called the property of the nation in whose territory they stand: they belong to all to whom they are ever to become accessible: and their annihilation, irreparable as it is, is a wrong to the whole world. The razing of the Afghan fortresses had an object: it weakened our enemy, and perhaps destroyed so many centres of rebellion and disorder; but we can only look upon the blowing up of the magnificent edifice of Ali Mürdan,—which had stood 182 years, and been visited in that period, and, like the Ephesian temple of Diana of old, been admired by 'all Asia,'—as a most barbarous and unseasonable outbreak of human anger, perfectly fruitless for any good purpose, and therefore even the more exasperating to those for whose warning it was intended.

The bazaar being demolished, the whole British force, then encamped in the neighbourhood of the city, began its march on the 12th of October, accompanied by the Shahzada Futtel Jung himself; that prince seeing the preference given by the tribes around Kaubul to his younger brother, Poora, a youth of sixteen, whom he left safe in the Balla Hissar, and inclined to try his chance of becoming sovereign. On arriving at Boodkhak, arrangements were made for dividing the troops into two columns, by taking the 2nd and 16th regiments of native infantry, and captain Blood's battery of nine-pounders, from the force under general Nott, and attaching them to that with general Pollock, who moved forward with his division through the Khoord Kaubul Pass on the ensuing morning, the 13th. General Sale had taken a route by the Gost Pundurrah Pass, to the right of the Khoord Kaubul, with his light brigade, on the previous day, so as to turn the Khoord Kaubul Pass and crown the heights from the further

side, where they were more accessible to the enemy, however, appeared; and all the troops encamped at Khoord Kaubul on the evening of the same day. On the 14th the army passed over the Huft Kohtul, the scene of the former conflict, and through the Tezeen pass, encamping in the valley; but the rear-guard, under brigadier Monteath, was attacked by a body of armed mountaineers, who, by means of the narrowness of the way, and the on-coming darkness, carried off a great deal of baggage. It was in vain that detachments were sent up the steep slopes to dislodge the assailants; owing to the darkness, little could be done beyond checking their descents into the pass; nothing but the flash of their juzzails could be seen. The guns were, however, safely deposited in a ravine soon after ten o'clock, and all the baggage, with the exception of that destroyed as related.

In this manner the British force advanced day by day, in two main divisions, headed respectively by generals Pollock and M'Caskill, to Kutturgung, Leh Baba, and Jugdulluk; the mountaineer enemy constantly following up the rear-guard, in order to seize more of the baggage, but happily without success. The first division marched through the Jugdulluk pass on the 17th, without firing a shot. On the 18th, however, when the second division attempted it, the most decided attack yet evinced was sustained by that force. The assailants, chiefly Ghilzies, sword in hand, rushed upon the British in the pass, when driven down from the heights by the rear-guard; many fell on both sides; but at length the passage was achieved. The whole British force arrived at Gundamuck on the 21st, now in three divisions, one headed by general Nott; and, after a day's rest, the divisions proceeded to Jellalabad, which they severally reached, without any important occurrence, on the 23rd, 24th, and 25th of October. A day or two was passed at Jellalabad by the

whole force, in order to demolish the fortress.

In the next still more hazardous advance to Peshawur, the terrible Khyber had to be passed once more. General Pollock's force, as at Jugdulluk, got through without much difficulty, by crowning the most dangerous of the heights; but not so the force of general M'Caskill. The heights over a very appalling part of the defile were not, probably from the almost impossibility of reaching them, crowned; and the consequence was a murderous attack upon the division by the Khyberries near Ali Musjid, late in the evening of the 3rd of November. A considerable quantity of baggage thereupon fell into the mountaineers' hands; and lieutenant Christie, of the artillery, ensign Nicholson, of the 30th Bengal native infantry, and above 100 sepoys, and a number of camp-followers, were killed. The British at length entered Ali Musjid, and destroyed the fort. The third division, under general Nott, the last of the British army in the voluntary retreat, arrived at Jumrood, the frontier station of the Sikh territory, on the 6th; so that the labours of the Kaubul army were now at an end, and it only remained for it to cross the Indus, to be once more safe in Hindustan.

By a proclamation of the governor-general at this important juncture, it was made known that Ukhar Khan had, prior to the late advance of the troops to Kaubul, refused to exchange the female and other prisoners in his custody, even for his own father, Dost Mohammed, and his own harem, all of whom were in the hands of the English. It was also announced by his lordship (to gratify the Hindu portion of British subjects) that the sandal-wood gates of Juggernaut's temple at Somnauth (Sumnat), which had more than 800 years since been taken therefrom by Mahmud of Ghuzni, and been placed, after his death, as before stated, at the entrance of that conqueror's

tomb, were to be restored to their original situation in Hindustan. A third proclamation announced that general England had safely brought his portion of the forces through the Kojuck and Bholun passes, into the valley of the Indus—a most difficult and delicate service, which, though not so splendid as the achievements of the Kaubul party, called into exertion (by demanding the greatest prudence to secure the safe descent of the several columns,) many of the higher qualities that contribute to form the character of the accomplished leader.

Thus having sketched, with all the accuracy in our power, the events connected with the Afghanistan war, we must now go back to illustrate some of the most striking features of a history, that will occupy a prominent place in the annals of Great Britain. The following is Dr. Brydon's own somewhat flippant account of his almost solitary escape, out of 13,000 persons, from the Kaubul massacre :

‘ Mohammed Ukhbar had detained us, on divers pretexts, at different places, while the road in front was being occupied, by his directions, by the blood-thirsty rebels ; and as we advanced, we found the hills and passes swarming with savages, who shot down our devoted force like so many cattle, without any attempt at defence, for our men actually gave themselves up unresistingly to the slaughter ! The native troops, almost to a man, were slaughtered at the pass of the Huft Kohtul, which is between Khoord Kaubul and Tezeen. After a halt of one day at Khoord Kaubul, we moved, on the morning of the 10th, and reached Tezeen (those who survived at least), at dusk. We halted for two hours in the snow, and then pushed on in the dark till we reached Jugdulluk ; having accomplished a distance of thirty-five miles, with only a remnant of the 44th and all the colours, and about a dozen men of the 5th native infantry, with one of their

colours. We were here placed in a ruined inclosure by Mohammed Ukhbar, commanded by hills all round, from which we were, as we lay, wrenched out and helpless on the snow, fired on, and slaughtered. The 44th here behaved well next day, as they stormed and took the most dangerous hill twice over ; but famished as they were, they could not retain it. The only meal we made here was on horse-flesh, indifferently cooked by the aid of such stunted bushes as grew scantily near our position. One officer gave ten rupees for a small chapatec, and five were offered every where for a jug of water, for we had not patience to melt the snow. Elphinstone, Shelton, and our paymaster, Johnson, went off from this place, at the bidding of Mohammed Ukhbar, to treat again—some two miles up to a small fort ; and ~~and~~ towards evening a note was received from Elphinstone, to the effect that we were all detained as hostages, and recommending the force to move off quietly after dark, as he saw nothing but treachery to be expected. On we moved, under our worthy brigadier Anquetil ; and from that moment the little order that had hitherto prevailed ceased. The 44th became an undisciplined rabble, threatening to shoot their officers, and every man who attempted to bring them to a sense of their duty ; the enemy all the while hanging on our rear, and cutting down every man they approached, with perfect impunity. After quitting the Jugdulluk pass, I and some twenty-five officers, who still kept our horses, stole away from the mutinous soldiery, and rode on ahead. Having taken one of my servants, who was wounded, up behind me, we fell rather too far in the rear ; and he was pulled off from behind, and I fell with him. On recovering my feet, I was instantly felled to the earth with the blow of a large knife, which wounded me in the head. I, however, managed to avert the second blow, by receiving my enemy's hand

on the edge of my sword, by which his hand was somewhat damaged, and he dropped his knife, and made off as fast as he could; and I, following his good example, managed to reach my companions, minus my horse, cap, and one shoe. I was then trudging along, holding fast by the tail of another officer's horse, when a native, who was riding close by, said that he could ride no farther, and told me to take his horse, which I did without delay. I do not know who the man was, as it was quite dark at the time, but the saddle must have belonged to an Afghan. We reached Gundamuck in pretty decent order, before daybreak; but after that, some of our party began to straggle, taking different roads. By this time the villagers were all up, and attacking us along the road with sticks, stones, and a few matchlocks. At about ten A. M., we were surrounded on all sides, and lost eight of our party; one of the slain being lieutenant Bird, of the Madras army, who fell close by my side. I, with the remaining four, Steer, Hopkins, Collyer, and Harpur, got clear of the horsemen, and pushed on; but Hopkins, Collyer, and Harpur, being better mounted than Steer and myself, at length left us in the rear, in spite of our entreaties. We rode on together for some way, till at last Steer's horse fairly gave in; whereupon he left me on foot, about four miles short of Jellalabad, in the hope of finding some cave (of which there are many), wherein to hide himself till night should come on. Vain hope! for we were observed by hundreds all around, and poor Steer was soon seized upon and killed. I proceeded slowly by myself for a short time; when I saw a great many people running towards me in all directions. I waited until they got pretty close, and then pushed my horse into a gallop, and ran the gauntlet for about two miles, under a shower of large stones, sticks, and a few shots, by which I had my sword broken by a stone, my horse shot in the spine

close to the tail, and my body bruised all over by the stones. I was now attacked by a horseman, who left a party of about six, whom I saw leading away one of our three officers' horses that had gone ahead: those three were killed. Having nothing to defend myself with, and my horse being quite done up, the fellow wounded me on the knee and hand; when, seeing me stoop down, he galloped away as fast as he could, thinking, I suppose, that I was looking for a pistol. I now proceeded, unmolested, and arrived here (Jellalabad) about one o'clock, sorely galled and tired. My poor horse, who lost the use of his hind legs next day, died two days after, without ever getting up after his arrival.

The following is lieutenant Andrew Crawford's (3d Bombay Native Infantry) account of colonel Palmer's surrender and sufferings at Ghuzni. 'Seeing that our men had now flung off all authority, and were about to desert us, we had nothing further to do but to make the best bargain we could for our lives. Shunsoodeen and all the Ghazee chiefs again swore, by all that was holy, that if we laid down our arms we should be honourably treated, and sent to Kaubul to the Shah as soon as possible. At ten P. M., we surrendered. The chief sent and begged the officers to come into the citadel immediately, as the Ghazees were yelling for the blood of the Feringhee Kaffirs, and he could not answer for our safety, if we delayed till daylight. Accordingly, we went up to the citadel, and gave up our swords, the chief placing bodies of his men round our late quarters, to keep the Ghazees from molesting the sepoys. A large party of these latter, however, during the night endeavoured to put their ridiculous plan of flight into execution, and made their way about two or three miles from the town. It came on to snow heavily, they got bewildered in the fields, and in the morning were all cut to pieces or made prisoners.

For the first few days after we had surrendered, we were treated pretty tolerably: the chief and his brother used to visit and condole with us on the change of fortune we had experienced, and expressed their sorrow at the violence of their fanatical followers not having permitted their strict observance of the treaty on which we had yielded up the citadel to them; but gradually they discontinued their visits: every little thing we had managed to secure, such as watches, penknives, money, &c., was now taken from us, and we were strictly confined to a small room 18 feet by 13. If there were ten of us, so you may imagine we had not much room to spare: indeed, when we lay down at night, we exactly occupied the whole floor, and when we wanted to take a little exercise, we were obliged to walk up and down (six paces!) in turn. Few of us had a change of linen, and the consequence was, we were soon swarming with vermin, the catching of which afforded an hour's employment every morning. I wore my solitary shirt for five weeks, till it became literally black and rotten; and I am really surprised none of us contracted any loathsome disease from the state of filth we were compelled to live in. On the 7th of April we heard of Shah Shùjah's murder, and from that date the severities of our confinement were redoubled; they shut and darkened the solitary window, from which we had hitherto derived light and air, and they also kept the door of our room constantly closed, so that the air we breathed became perfectly pestiferous. On the 21st of the month they tortured colonel Palmer with a tent peg and rope, in such a manner that it is wonderful he ever recovered the use of his foot. I cannot in a letter explain the process of the torture; but we all witnessed it, and it was something on the principle of the Scotch 'boot' described in 'Old Mortality.' We were told we should each be tortured in our turn, unless we gave up four lacs of rupees, which the rascals swore we

had buried, and that if we continued obstinate, they told us we should be blown from guns, beginning with the junior. At the end of April our guards suddenly became particularly civil to us for a few days, and we found out they had a report of the advance of our troops; indeed, up to the period of our actual release, we could always form a pretty shrewd guess of what our troops were about, by the treatment we experienced at the hands of our captors; if there was any forward movement among our people, any arrival of reinforcements at Jellalabad or Kandahar, &c., then we were treated well for a few days, and we got better food; but if our people appeared to be idle, and things remained *in statu quo* for a week, then our guards taunted us on the unwelcome spirit of the Ferringhee armies, and boasted how they would exterminate them if they advanced. Gool Mohammed Khan, the brother of Shumsoodeen, who had always behaved more civilly towards us than the big chief, was, unfortunately for us, despatched to Kaubul, on business, about the middle of April; but I believe it was owing to the receipt of a letter from him, that on the 12th of May we were permitted to quit our prison-room, and walk on the terrace of the citadel for one hour; and we were told that similar kindness would be shown us once a week (!!!), viz., on Friday, when Shumsoodeen was wont to make a kind of religious picnic to a neighbouring shrine. Even this we thought a great blessing, and used to count the days and hours to each succeeding Friday, anxiously expecting the moment when our guard would tell us we might breathe God's fresh air, and look out on the green fields, for the allotted period.

'On the 15th of June, Gool Mohammed returned from Kaubul, bringing with him some of the ladies of his brother's family: on their account, we were told, we should be removed to other quarters, and of course we expected a change for the worse, but, as it eventually proved,

we were agreeably disappointed. Just at this period, one of our number, lieutenant Davis, 27th native infantry, had sickened with typhus fever; we had no medicine, no comforts for him, and he lay on the ground delirious, raving about home and his family, and every hour proving worse, till, on the 19th, death put an end to his sufferings. We read the burial service over him, and then made his body over to the guard to bury; but I am afraid they merely flung the poor fellow into a ditch outside the gate. It was a melancholy ceremony that burial service, few amongst us, I imagine, but thought that it might be his turn next, especially now that sickness had broken out in such a shape. However, on the following day we were removed to another building, where we had three or four rooms to ourselves, and a court-yard to walk about in, and our guard was replaced by a more civil set. This was a delightful change; and being greedy of fresh air, after so long a deprivation of it, we made the most of our new berth, by always sleeping in the open air in the court-yard. It is true it was utterly impossible to get a minute's rest in any of the rooms allotted to us, as they were swarming with the foulest vermin; so we thought it no hardship to have the stars for a canopy, and for three months we never slept under a roof, or with any other covering beyond our sheep-skin cloaks. From this date the conduct of Shumsooden towards us improved greatly. He came to see us frequently, and chatted in a kind manner, always telling us we should shortly be set at liberty, in exchange for Dost Mohammed, who was returning to Kaubul, having been freed by our government. This gave us renewed hopes of soon again becoming free agents; and as our circumstances were improved, and our guards more friendly towards us, our captivity was more easily borne; but still, as time wore on, and nothing definite was learnt regarding our release, we again began to despair, especially when the middle of August arrived, and we seemed as far as ever from the attainment of our wishes. It was on the 19th of August, that we had, as usual, wrapped ourselves up in our cloaks, and taken lodgings on the cold ground for the night, when the chief suddenly entered the yard and told us we were to march immediately for Kaubul; and sure enough, in half an hour afterwards, we found ourselves slung in pairs in kujavas, on each side of camels, and moving towards the capital. How delighted we were to bid adieu to the walls of old Ghuz! I do believe, if we had known we were going to execution, the change would nevertheless have gladdened us. We reached Kaubul in three days, without meeting any adventure on the road; but we were abused most grossly by the populace as we proceeded through the streets of the city: fortunately it was in the dusk of the evening, and but few people witnessed our arrival, otherwise they might not have confined their ill-treatment to words. We were taken direct to Mohammed Ukhbar's quarters in the Balla Hissar, and from him we met with the kindest reception. I could not bring myself to the belief that the stout, good-humoured, open-hearted-looking young man, who was making such kind inquiries after our health, and how we had borne the fatigues of the journey, could be the murderer of Macnaghten and the leader of the massacre of our troops. After many civil speeches, he ordered dinner, and sent for Troup and Pottinger to see us; when they arrived, the whole of us, Mohammed Ukhbar, his chiefs, and ourselves, all sat down to the best meal I had had for many a month. The wuscer (as he always styled himself) chatted and joked away on indifferent subjects during the meal, and shortly after its conclusion dismissed us, saying he would make us over to the care of Pottinger and Troup for the night, and we might go and have a chat with them

in private, as doubtless we were anxious to do. On the following morning the *arch fiend* sent us an excellent breakfast, and horses to carry us out a few miles to the fort where the other British prisoners were living; and he desired a list of our wants, regarding clothes, &c., might be made out, and they should be furnished. We found our countrymen living in what appeared to us a small paradise; they had comfortable quarters, servants, money, and no little baggage, and a beautiful garden to walk about in. To our great regret, we had only been four or five days in this elysium, when we were sent off to Bamecan. Being thus away from the immediate care of Mohammed Ukhbar, (listen to the apologist—the sole panegyrist, of the treacherous immolator of 13,000 British *employés*!), we soon found ourselves called on to rough it once more. Tents had been sent for the use of the ladies, but our guards would only pitch them when it suited their convenience; and consequently the poor women and children had frequently to bivouac with us men, and that, too, in the nipping night-air of the mountains. None of them, however, I am happy to say, suffered in the least. I see that Johnson and others have already given very good accounts in the public prints of our doings at Bamecan, and return from thence to the blessings of freedom; so I will not inflict a second edition of the tale upon you.

Our next illustrations are from lieutenant Eyre's interesting, and, it is understood, authentic account, of the memorable retreat from Kaubul. 'At an early hour on the morning of November 2, 1841, the startling intelligence was brought from the city, that a popular outbreak had taken place, that the shops were all closed, and that a general attack had been made on the houses of all British officers residing in Kaubul. About 8 A.M. a hurried note was received by the envoy in cantonments from 'sir Alexander Burnes. (the latter living

in the city), stating that the minds of the people had been strongly excited by some mischievous reports, but expressing a hope that he should succeed in quelling the commotion.' About 9 A.M., however, a rumour was circulated, which afterwards proved but too well founded, that sir Alexander had been murdered, and captain Johnson's treasury plundered. Flames were now seen to issue from that part of the city where they dwelt; and it was too apparent that the endeavour to appease the people by quiet means had failed, and that it would be necessary to have recourse to stronger measures. The report of fire-arms was incessant, and seemed to extend through the town from end to end. Sir William Macnaghten now called on general Elphinstone to act. An order was accordingly sent to brigadier Shelton, then encamped at Seeah Sung, about a mile and a half distant from cantonments, to march forthwith to the Balla Hissar, or royal citadel, where his majesty, Shah Shujah, resided, with the following troops: viz.—one company of her majesty's 44th foot, a wing of the 54th native infantry, under major Ewart, the 6th Shah's infantry, under captain Hopkins, and four horse-artillery guns under captain Nicholl; and, on arrival there, to act according to his own judgment, after consulting the king. Widely spread, and formidable as this insurrection proved to be afterwards, it was at first a mere insignificant ebullition of discontent on the part of a few desperate and restless men, which military energy and promptitude ought to have crushed in the bud. Its commencement was an attack by certainly not 300 men on the dwellings of sir Alexander Burnes and captain Johnson, paymaster to the Shah's force; and so little did sir Alexander himself apprehend serious consequences, that he not only refused, on its first breaking out, to comply with the earnest entreaties of the wuzeer to accompany him to the Balla Hissar, but actually forbade his

guard to fire on the assailants, attempting to check what he supposed to be a mere riot, by haranguing the attacking party from the gallery of his house. The result was fatal to himself; for, in spite of the devoted gallantry of the sepoys, who composed his guard, and that of the paymaster's office and treasury on the opposite side of the street, who yielded their trust only with their latest breath, the latter were plundered, and his two companions, lieutenant William Broadfoot, of the Bengal European regiment, and his brother, lieutenant Burnes, of the Bombay army, were massacred, in common with every man, woman, and child, found on the premises, by these bloodthirsty miscreants. Lieutenant Broadfoot killed five or six men with his own hand, before he was shot down. No man, surely, in a highly responsible public situation—especially in such an one as that held by the late sir A. Burnes—ought ever to indulge in a state of blind security, or to neglect salutary warnings however small. It is indisputable that such warnings had been given to him; especially by a respectable Afghan named Taj-Mahomed, on the very previous night, who went in person to sir A. Burnes to put him on his guard, but retired disgusted by the incredulity with which his assertions were received.' Although brigadier Shelton marched, as commanded, to the Balla Hissar, no active measures of suppression were adopted. 'The day,' continues Mr. Eyre, 'was suffered to pass without anything being done demonstrative of British energy and power. The murder of our countrymen and the spoliation of public and private property was perpetrated with impunity within a mile of our cantonment, and under the very walls of the Balla Hissar. Such an exhibition on our part taught the enemy their strength; confirmed against us those who, however disposed to join in the rebellion, had hitherto kept aloof from prudential motives, and ultimately encour-

aged the nation to unite as one man for our destruction.' It appears that captain Lawrence, who had been sent to apprise the shah of the brigadier's intended march, had two narrow escapes on his way to the citadel; and lieutenant Sturt, the executive engineer, while entering that palace with Shelton, was stabbed by an insurgent in three places about the face and neck. Yet was no speedy notice of these atrocities attempted. At last, on the morning of November 3, the 37th regiment of native infantry returned from Khoord-Kaibul to the cantonment, pursued by a body of 3000 Ghilzies; and Shelton, at the Balla Hissar, was then directed to commence a sharp fire upon the city (three-fourths of which the citadel commands), and endeavour to fire the houses by means of shells and carcasses. But no other more active means were adopted to subdue and punish the insurgents; and lieutenant Eyre proceeds to give his account of that 'sine qua non' of our troops, the magazines of provisions and ammunition, or commissariat, valued by him at a million sterling, being suffered to fall into the hands of the insurgents. 'The enemy, having taken strong possession of the Shah Bagh, or King's Garden, and thrown a garrison into the fort of Mohammed Shereef, nearly opposite the bazaar, effectually prevented any communication between the cantonment and commissariat fort, the gate of which latter was commanded by the gate of the Shah Bagh, on the other side of the road. Ensign Warren, of the 5th native infantry, at this time occupied the commissariat fort with 100 men; and having reported that he was very hard pressed by the enemy, and in danger of being completely cut off, the general,—either forgetful or unaware at the moment of the important fact that upon the possession of this fort we were entirely dependant for provisions, and anxious only to save the lives of men whom he believed to be in imminent peril,—hastily gave directions that a

party under the command of captain Swayne, of her majesty's 44th regiment, should proceed immediately to bring off ensign Warren and his garrison to cantonments, abandoning the fort to the enemy. A few minutes previously, an attempt to relieve him had been made by ensign Gordon, with a company of the 37th native infantry, and eleven camels laden with ammunition; but the party were driven back, and ensign Gordon killed. Captain Swayne now accordingly proceeded towards the spot with two companies of her majesty's 44th; scarcely had they issued from cantonments ere a sharp and destructive fire was poured upon them from Mohammed Sherceef's fort, which, as they proceeded, was taken up by the marksmen in the Shah Bagh, under whose deadly aim both officers and men suffered severely; captains Swayne and Robinson being killed, and lieutenants Hallahan, Evans, and Fortye, wounded in this disastrous business. It now seemed to the officer, on whom the command had devolved, impracticable to bring off ensign Warren's party, without risking the annihilation of his own, which had already sustained so rapid and severe a loss in officers; he, therefore, returned forthwith to cantonments. In the course of the evening another attempt was made by a party of the 5th light cavalry; but they encountered so severe a fire from the neighbouring enclosures, as obliged them to return without effecting their desired object, with the loss of eight troopers killed and fourteen badly wounded. Captain Boyd, the assistant-commissary general, having meanwhile been made acquainted with the general's intention to give up the fort, hastened to lay before him the disastrous consequences that would ensue from so doing. He stated that the place contained, besides large supplies of wheat and atta, all his stores of rum, medicine, clothing, &c., the value of which might be estimated at four lacs of rupees; that to abandon such va-

luable property would not only expose the force to the immediate wants of the necessaries of life, but would infallibly inspire the enemy with tenfold courage. He added that we had not above two days' supply of provisions in cantonments, and that neither himself nor captain Johnson, of the Shah's commissariat, had any prospect of procuring them elsewhere under existing circumstances. In consequence of this strong representation on the part of captain Boyd, the general sent immediate orders to ensign Warren to hold out the fort to the last extremity. (Ensign Warren, it must be remarked, denied having received this note.) Early in the night a letter was received from him to the effect that he believed the enemy were busily engaged in mining one of the towers, and that such was the alarm among the sepoys, that several of them had actually made their escape over the wall to cantonments; that the enemy were making preparations to burn down the gate; and that, considering the temper of his men, he did not expect to be able to hold out many hours longer, unless reinforced without delay. In reply to this he was informed that he would be reinforced by two A. M. At about nine P. M. there was an assembly of staff and other officers at the general's house, when the envoy came in, and expressed his serious conviction that, unless Mohammed Sherceef's fort were taken that very night, we should lose the commissariat fort, or at all events be unable to bring out of it provisions for the troops. The disaster of the morning rendered the general extremely unwilling to expose his officers and men to any similar peril; but, on the other hand, it was urged that the darkness of the night would nullify the enemy's fire, who would also most likely be taken unawares, as it was not the custom of the Afghans to maintain a very strict watch at night. A man in captain Johnson's employ was accordingly sent out to reconnoitre the place; he returned

in a few minutes with the intelligence that about twenty men were seated outside the fort near the gate, smoking and talking; and from what he overheard of their conversation, he judged the garrison to be very small, and unable to resist a sudden onset. The debate was now resumed; but another hour passed, and the general could not make up his mind. A second spy was despatched, whose report tended to corroborate what the first had said. I was then sent to lieutenant Sturt, the engineer, who was nearly recovered from his wounds, for his opinion. He at first expressed himself in favour of an immediate attack; but, on hearing that some of the enemy were on the watch at the gate, he judged it prudent to defer the assault till an early hour in the morning: this decided the general, though not before several hours had slipped away in fruitless discussion. Orders were at last given for a detachment to be in readiness at four A. M. at the Kohistan gate; and captain Bellew, deputy assistant quartermaster-general, volunteered to blow open the gate; another party of her majesty's 44th were at the same time to issue by a cut in the south face of the rampart, and march simultaneously toward the commissariat fort, to reinforce the garrison. Morning had, however, well dawned ere the men could be got under arms; and they were on the point of marching off, when it was reported that ensign Warren had just arrived in cantonments with his garrison, having evacuated the fort. It seems that the enemy had actually set fire to the gate; and ensign Warren, seeing no prospect of a reinforcement, and expecting the enemy every moment to rush in, led out his men by a hole which he had prepared in the wall. Being called upon in a public letter from the assistant-adjudant-general to state his reasons for abandoning his post, he replied that he was ready to do so before a court of inquiry, which he requested might be assembled to investigate his conduct; it

was not, however, deemed expedient to comply with his request. It is beyond a doubt that our feeble and ineffectual defence of this fort, and the valuable booty it yielded, was the first fatal blow to our supremacy at Kaubul, and at once determined those chiefs, and more particularly the Kūz-zilbashes, who had hitherto remained neutral, to join the general combination to drive us from the country.'

'It no sooner became generally known that the commissariat fort, upon which we were dependant for supplies, had been abandoned, than one universal feeling of indignation pervaded the garrison; nor can I describe the impatience of the troops, but especially the native portion, to be led out for its recapture—a feeling that was by no means diminished by their seeing the Afghans crossing and recrossing the road between the commissariat fort and the gate of the Shah Bagh, laden with the provisions upon which had depended our ability to make a protracted defence.' On the morning of the 9th, brigadier Shelton, the second in command, returned from the Balla Hissar, to the aid of general Elphinstone; and from henceforward that officer 'bore,' relates lieutenant Eyre, 'a conspicuous part in the drama, upon the issue of which so much depended. He had, however, from the very first, seemed to despair of the force being able to hold out the winter at Kaubul, and strenuously advocated a retreat to Jellalabad. This sort of despondency proved, unhappily, very infectious. It soon spread its baneful influence among the officers, and was by them communicated to the soldiery. The number of croakers in garrison became perfectly frightful, lugubrious looks and dismal prophecies being encountered everywhere. The severe losses sustained by her majesty's 44th, under captain Swayne, on the 4th instant, had very much discouraged the men of that regiment; and it is a lamentable fact that some of those European soldiers, who were naturally expected to exhibit to their

native brethren in arms an example of endurance and fortitude, were among the first to lose confidence and give vent to feelings of discontent at the duties imposed on them. The evil seed, once sprung up, became more and more difficult to eradicate, showing daily more and more how completely demoralizing to the British soldier is the very idea of a retreat. Sir William Macnaghten and his suite were altogether opposed to brigadier Shelton in this matter, it being in his (the envoy's) estimation a duty we owed the government to retain our post, at whatsoever risk. This difference of opinion, on a question of such vital importance, was attended with unhappy results, inasmuch as it deprived the general, in his hour of need, of the strength which unanimity imparts, and produced an uncommunicative and disheartening reserve in an emergency which demanded the freest interchange of counsel and ideas.' This remark would seem to acquit the unfortunate envoy of the charge brought against him, at the moment of the retreat, of having been one to originate that measure.

The western heights were attacked by the brigadier on the 13th, with a view to try what such a demonstration would effect, and, after much hard fighting, considerable impression was made upon the enemy. 'But,' continues the lieutenant, 'the success obtained on those heights was the last our arms were destined to experience. Henceforward it becomes my weary task to relate a catalogue of errors, disasters, and difficulties, which, following close upon each other, disgusted our officers, disheartened our soldiers, and finally sank us all into irretrievable ruin.' The impression, however, made on the enemy by the action of the 13th, was salutary; and advantage was taken of the respite which followed to throw supplies into the Balla Hissar. Some hope was also entertained that the cantonments might be abandoned for that superior strong-hold; but the

objections urged by the general and others (that it would be most difficult to remove thither the sick and wounded, that the abandonment of the cantonments would afford the enemy a triumph, and that there was risk of being defeated on the way), prevented that course being adopted. It was, therefore, determined to remain in cantonments, and the first necessary step was to secure provisions and forage for the winter. 'For some months the supplies had been obtained from the village of Beymaroo, half a mile from the cantonments on the Kohistan road; but the enemy had begun to bribe the proprietor of the place (for the villages of Kaubul are commonly the property of a single chief) not to aid us any longer. On November 22, it was resolved to send a party of troops to forestal the enemy in their purpose of occupying this important post: but the attempt unfortunately failed, and the same evening saw our formidable foe, Mohammed Ukhbar Khan, within the walls of Kaubul. Brigadier Shelton, therefore, was ordered to take the village by assault on the following morning by daybreak; and, that day (November 23) might be said to decide the fate of the Kaubul force. The storming party went forward, but took a wrong direction, missed the entrance, and failed. Meanwhile lieutenant Walker had been directed to lead his irregular horse down into the plain on the west side of the hill, to cut off such fugitives from Beymaroo as he might be able to intercept; and brigadier Shelton moved back with his troops and guns to a part of the hill which overlooked the gorge. Both parties instantly became exposed to the distant fire of the enemy's juzzails; and it was found that no less than 10,000 people from the city crowned the summits of the hill.' Lieutenant Walker was soon recalled, to prevent his destruction; but by that arrangement the enemy were enabled soon to surround the British position at all points, excepting that facing the

cantonments.' The gun-ammunition of the brigadier was almost expended, and the men were faint with fatigue and thirst (no water being procurable), while the number of killed and wounded was swollen every instant. At length an overwhelming assault by Ghazees wholly disconcerted the assailing force: 'all order (says lieutenant Eyre) was at an end; the entreaties and commands of the officers, endeavouring to rally the men, were not even listened to; and an utter rout ensued down the hill in the direction of the cantonments, the enemy closely following, whose cavalry, in particular, made a fearful slaughter among the unresisting fugitives. Major Kershaw's party, perceiving this disaster, endeavoured to escape; but strong parties issuing from the village cut off their retreat, and this great numbers of our sepoys perished: the Grenadier company, especially, was all but annihilated. The mingled tide of flight and pursuit seemed, to those who manned the walls of the cantonment, to be about to enter the gate together; and, by some fatality, the ammunition of the great guns in battery within the cantonments was almost expended. A heavy fire, however, was opened from the shah's 5th infantry in the Mission Compound; a fresh troop of the 5th cavalry, under lieutenant Hardyman, charged across the plain towards the enemy, joined by lieutenant Walker, who had rallied fifteen or twenty of his own men; during which gallant effort, this most promising and brave young officer received a mortal wound. These operations, assisted by a sharp discharge from the juzailchees under captain Trevor, contributed to check the pursuit; and it was observed at the time, and afterwards ascertained to be correct, that a chief (Osman Khan) voluntarily halted his followers, who were among the foremost, and led them off; which may be reckoned, indeed, the chief reason why all our people who on that day went forth to battle were not de-

stroyed. Our loss was tremendous; the principal part of the wounded having been left on the field (including lieutenant-colonel Oliver), where they were miserably cut to pieces. Our gun and second limber, which, while endeavouring to gallop down the hill, had overturned on rough ground, we had the mortification to behold triumphantly carried off by the enemy. Our troops had now lost all confidence; and even such of the officers as had hitherto indulged the hope of a favourable turn in our affairs, began at last reluctantly to entertain gloomy forebodings as to our future fate. Our force resembled a ship in danger of wrecking among rocks and shoals, for want of an able pilot to guide it safely through them. Even now, at the eleventh hour, had the helm of affairs been grasped by a hand competent to the important task, we might perhaps have steered clear of destruction; but, in the absence of any such deliverer, it was too evident that heaven alone could save us by some unforeseen interposition. The spirit of the men was gone; the influence of the officers over them declined daily, and that boasted discipline, which alone renders a handful of our troops superior to an irregular multitude, began fast to disappear from among us. The enemy, on the other hand, waxed bolder every day and hour; nor was it long ere we got accustomed to be bearded and insulted with impunity from under the very ramparts of our garrison.'

From this moment every thing turned out disastrously. The insurgents affected to treat with the envoy; but their demands were so preposterous, that no thought of coming to terms could be entertained. On the 5th of December, when the enemy had succeeded in destroying a bridge, to the serious injury of the British position, they proceeded to attack the fort of Mohammed Sheereef; and it is with regret that we have to record the lieutenant's statement regarding the conduct of the British soldiers to whom, with a com-

pany of sepoy's, its defence had been entrusted. 'At an early hour on the 6th (he writes) the garrison of Mohammed Shereef's fort was relieved by one company of her majesty's 44th, under lieutenant Grey, and one company of the 37th native infantry, under lieutenant Hawtrey—an amply sufficient force for the defence of the place against any sudden onset; but, unhappily, the fears of the old garrison were communicated to the new, and, owing to the representations of lieutenant Hawtrey, the defences were minutely examined by lieutenant Sturt, the garrison-engineer, and by him pronounced to be complete. Scarcely, however, had that officer returned to cantonments, ere information was conveyed to the general that the detachment, having been seized with a panic, had taken flight over the walls, and abandoned the fort to the enemy. It would appear, that a small party of jizailchees, having crept up to the undermined tower under cover of the trees in the Shah Bagh, had fired upon the garrison through the barricaded breach which I have above described, unfortunately wounding lieutenant Grey; upon whose departure for medical aid the Europeans, deprived of their officer, lost what little confidence they had before possessed, and, collecting their bedding under the walls, betrayed symptoms of an intention to retreat. The enemy, meanwhile, emboldened by the slackened fire of the defenders, approached momentarily nearer to the walls, and, making a sudden rush to the barricade, completed the panic of the garrison, who now made their escape over the walls in the greatest consternation, deaf to the indignant remonstrances of their gallant commander, who, in vain, entreated them not to disgrace themselves and him by such cowardly proceedings. Even the sepoy's, who at first remained staunch, contaminated by the bad example set them by their European brethren, refused to rally; and lieutenant Hawtrey, finding himself deserted by all, was obliged re-

luctantly to follow, being the last to leave the fort. It is, however, worthy of mention, that two sepoy's of the 37th native infantry were left dead in the fort, and two others were wounded, while not a man of the 44th was touched, excepting one, whose hand suffered from the accidental explosion of a grenade.

'The enemy, though at first few in numbers, were not slow to avail themselves of the advantage afforded them by this miserable conduct of our troops, and their banner was soon planted in triumph on the walls, amidst the exulting shouts of hundreds. Much recrimination took place between the Europeans and the sepoy's engaged in this affair, each declaring the other had been the first to run; and a court of inquiry was assembled to investigate the matter, the result of which, though never entirely divulged, was generally supposed to be favourable to the sepoy's, it being a known fact that the Europeans had brought off nearly all their bedding safe, whilst the sepoy's had left every thing behind. At all events, a circumstance soon occurred which abundantly testified the impression made on those in command. At this time the bazaar-village was garrisoned by a party of her majesty's 44th, who, on observing the flight of the soldiers from Mohammed Shereef's fort, were actually on the point of abandoning their own post, when they were observed and stopped by some officers, of whom one was lieutenant White, the adjutant of the regiment; but, so little dependence could now be placed on their stability, that a guard of the 37th native infantry was stationed at the entrance of the bazaar, with strict orders to prevent the exit of any Europeans on duty in the place. The European garrison was next day withdrawn from the bazaar, and a company of the 37th native infantry substituted in their room! This being the weakest point of our defences, had hitherto been protected entirely by parties of her majesty's 44th, which post of honour they were now con-

sidered unworthy to retain! It is notorious (continues Mr. Eyre) that the 44th foot had been, for a long time previous to these occurrences, in a state of woful deterioration. I firmly believe that in this, and in every other respect, they stood alone as a regiment of that noble army, whose glorious deeds in all quarters of the globe have formed, with those of the British navy, the foundation of our national pride, and have supplied for ages to come a theme of wonder and admiration. The regiment in question fell a prey to a vital disease, which the Horse Guards alone could have remedied, and which is now beyond the reach of proper investigation. May a redeeming glory and renown rise from its ashes!

While these affairs were transacting, it was discovered that the supply of provisions had been greatly overrated, and that there was not, in fact, a sufficiency in store for the consumption of one day. An attempt was therefore made, which proved successful, to obtain some grain from the Bulla Hissâr; and on December 8th, as the want of food began to be more strongly felt, the envoy addressed a letter to the general, in which he requested him to state 'whether or not it was his opinion that any further attempt to hold out against the enemy would merely have the effect of sacrificing both his majesty, Shah Shûjah, and the British force?' Consultations were accordingly held by general Elphinstone, sir William Macnaghten, and brigadier Shelton; and on December 11th sir William went out to meet the Afghan chiefs of tribes on the plain towards Seah Sung. Having addressed them in a conciliatory speech he requested leave to read to them the sketch of the treaty which he intended to propose; and this being agreed to, the several articles were read and discussed. Their general purport (says lieutenant Eyre) was to the effect—That the British should evacuate Afghanistan, including Kan-

lahar, Ghuzni, Kaubul, Jellalabad, and all the other stations absolutely within the limits of the country so called;—that they should be permitted to return, not only unmolested to India, but that supplies of every description should be afforded them on their road thither, certain men of consequence accompanying them as hostages;—that the amir Dost Mohammed Khan, his family, and every Afghan now in exile for political offences, should be allowed to return to their country; that Shah Shûjah and his family should be allowed the option of remaining at Kaubul or proceeding with the British troops to Loodiana, in either case receiving from the Afghan government a pension of one lac of rupees per annum; that means of transport for the conveyance of our baggage, stores, &c., including that required by the royal family, in case of their adopting the latter alternative, should be furnished by the existing Afghan government; that an amnesty should be granted to all those who had made themselves obnoxious on account of their attachment to Shah Shûjah and his allies, the British;—that all prisoners should be released;—that no British force should be ever again sent into Afghanistan, unless called for by the Afghan government, between whom and the British nation perpetual friendship should be established on the sure foundation of mutual good offices. To all these terms the chiefs cordially agreed, with the exception of Mohammed Ukhbar, who cavilled at several, especially that of the amnesty, but was overruled by his coadjutors. He positively refused to permit the garrison to be supplied with provisions until it had quitted cantonments, which movement he clamorously demanded should take place the following morning. His violence caused some confusion; but the more temperate of the party having interfered, it was finally agreed that our evacuation of the cantonments should take place in three days, that provisions should be sup-

plied, and that to all the above-mentioned articles of this new treaty a formal assent in writing should be sent, with all the usual forms of a restored peace. The chiefs, on returning to the city, took with them captain Trevor, as a hostage for the sincerity of the envoy.' Mr. Eyre continues with the following remarks. 'It is undeniable that sir William was forced into this treaty with men whose power he despised, and whose treachery was proverbial, against his own judgment, by the pressing representations of our military heads. It is no less true that, whatever may have been his political remissness or want of foresight before the rebellion broke out, he had, throughout the perils that afterwards beset us, displayed a truly British spirit of unflinching fortitude and indefatigable energy, calculated, under more auspicious leaders, to have stimulated the zeal and valour of the troops, and to have cheered them under the trials and hardships they were called on to endure; and I can safely add, without fear of contradiction, that scarcely an enterprise was undertaken throughout the siege, but at the suggestion, and even the entreaties, of the envoy,—he volunteering to take on himself the entire responsibility. Justice demands this tribute to the memory of one, whose acts, as they will assuredly undergo the severe scrutiny of his countrymen, it therefore becomes the duty of every eye-witness who bears testimony on the subject, not only to shield from misrepresentation, but, where they are deserving of it, to hold up to public admiration. I am led to write this, solely by my public knowledge of the man. If I could bring myself, on matters of such vital importance, to follow the dictates of mere private feeling, my bias would be altogether on the side of my late lamented military chief, who honoured me with his friendship, and for whose infirmities every allowance ought, in common justice, to be made. With a mind and talents of no ordi-

nary stamp, and a hitherto unsullied fame, he committed the fatal error, of transporting himself suddenly from a state of prolonged luxurious repose, at an advanced age, to undertake the fatigues and cares inseparable from high military command in a foreign uncongenial climate: he thus not only ruined his already shattered health, but (which to a soldier is a far worse calamity) grievously damaged that high reputation which his early services had secured for him.' The terms of the treaty were at once made known to the shah; but, at the close of the same day, a deputation of chiefs had another interview with the envoy, to propose 'that Shah Shujah should continue king, on condition of intermarrying his daughters with the leading Afghan chiefs, and abandoning the offensive practice of keeping the chief nobles of the kingdom waiting for hours at his gate, in expectation of an audience.' So unexpected a proposition was, after some delay, rejected; and chiefly on account of the evident want of sincerity of Ukhbar Khan, the great adviser of the chiefs. 'Instigated by him,' says the lieutenant, 'the chiefs positively refused to supply provisions or forage, until we should further assure them of our sincerity by giving up every fort in the immediate vicinity of cantonments. Forage had for many days been so scarce, that the horses and cattle were only kept alive by paring off the bark of trees, and by eating their own dung over and over again, which was regularly collected and spread for them. The camp-followers were destitute of other food than the flesh of animals which expired daily from starvation and cold. The daily consumption of atta by the fighting-men was about 150 maunds, and not above two days' supply remained in store. By giving up the forts in question, all of which commanded the cantonment, we should place ourselves entirely at the mercy of the enemy, who could at any time render our position untenable. But our leaders now seemed

to consider that we had no choice left but to concede to the demands of the chiefs, however unreasonable; and our troops were accordingly withdrawn from four of the forts, all of which were forthwith occupied by the Afghans, who, on their part, sent in Mussuroollah Khan as a hostage, and a supply of about 150 maunds of atta for the troops. They likewise promised us 2000 camels and 400 yaboos for the march to Jellalabad. No part of this promise, however, was even attempted to be realized; while the increasing severity of the weather threatened, by every hour's delay, to render the march an impossibility. On December 18th, the snow lay half a foot deep on the ground; and with this new enemy in front, advancing almost with Siberian severity and rapidity, the snare laid at the juncture by the wily Ukhbar could scarcely fail of involving the unsuspecting envoy in its meshes. Captain Skinner (says Mr. Eyre), at this time living under Mohammed Ukhbar's protection, was made the bearer of proposals, on the night of the 22d, to the envoy, of so advantageous a nature, as to prove, in his forlorn circumstances, irresistibly tempting. Amenoolah Khan, the most influential of the rebels, was to be seized on the following day, and delivered up to us as a prisoner. Mahmoud's fort was to be immediately occupied by one of our regiments, and the Balla Hissar by another. Shah Shujah was to continue king, Ukhbar was to become his wusser, and our troops were to remain in their present position until the following spring. That a scheme like this, bearing impracticability on its very face, should have for a moment deceived a man of sir William's usual intelligence and penetration, is, indeed, an extraordinary instance of infatuation, that can only be accounted for on the principle that a drowning man will catch at a straw. Our fortunes were now at their lowest ebb; the chiefs were apparently delaying our departure until

the snow should have formed an impassable barrier to the removal of our troops, which, even in the absence of an enemy, would but too probably perish from cold and famine. A treaty formed with men famed for falsehood and treachery, and who had already shown an utter disregard of some of its most important stipulations, could be regarded as little better than so much waste paper; added to which considerations, sir William felt that his own fame was deeply involved in the issue of that policy (the scheme of restoring Shah Shujah), of which he had from the very first been the prime advocate and upholder, and that with it he must stand or fall. The specious project of Mohammed Ukhbar offered a solution to the difficulties that beset his path, at which he grasped with an eagerness engendered by despair. The strength of the rebels had hitherto lain in their unanimity: the proposed stroke of policy would at once dissolve the confederacy, and open a road by which to retrieve our ruined fortunes. On either hand there was danger; and, miserable as sir William's life had been for the past six weeks, he was willing to stake his all on the issue of a plan which seemed to offer a faint hope of recovering the ground he had lost. In a fatal hour he signed his name to a paper consenting to the arrangement. His doom was sealed. The whole was a scheme got up by the chiefs to test his sincerity.

On the following day, the 23d, 'the day of doom' to the envoy, sir William left the Mission House, accompanied by captains Lawrence, Trevor, and Mackenzie, to hold conference with Ukhbar Khan, as related in our history; and the issue is given in the following letter addressed by captain Lawrence to lieutenant Eyre, with more of detail than the official documents, whence the sketch of the war has been taken, were, at the moment of promulgation, capable of furnishing. 'Sir, in compliance with your request, I have the honour to

detail the particulars of my capture, and of the death of my ever-to-be-lamented chief. On the morning of the 23d of December, at 11 A.M., I received a note from the late sir W. H. Macnaghten, warning me to attend, with captains Trevor and Mackenzie, an interview he was about to have with sirdar Mohammed Ukhbar Khan. Accordingly, with the above-named officers, at about twelve, I accompanied sir William, having previously heard him tell major-general Elphinstone to have two regiments of infantry, and two guns, ready for secret service. In passing through cantonments, on my observing that there were more Afghans in cantonments than usual, or than I deemed safe, the envoy directed one of his Afghan attendants to proceed and cause them all to leave, at the same time remarking, how strange it was that, although the general was fully acquainted with the then very critical state of affairs, no preparations appeared to have been made, adding, 'However, it is all of a piece with the military arrangements throughout the siege.' He then said, 'There is not enough of the escort with us;' to which I replied, that he had only ordered eight or ten, but that I had brought sixteen, and that I would send for the remainder, which I accordingly did, asking lieutenant Le Geyt to bring them, and to tell brigadier Shelton, who had expressed a wish to attend the next interview, that he might accompany them. On passing the gate, we observed some hundreds of armed Afghans within a few yards of it; on which I called to the officer on duty to get the reserve under arms, and brought outside to disperse them, and to send to the general to have the garrison on the alert. Towards Mahmoud Khan's fort were a number of armed Afghans, but we then observed none nearer.

'The envoy now told us that he, on the night previous, had received a proposal from sirdar Mohammed Ukhbar Khan, to which he had agreed, and that he had every reason

to hope it would bring our present difficulties to an early and happy termination; that Ukhbar Khan was to give up Naib Amenoolah Khan as a prisoner to us, for which purpose a regiment was to proceed to Mahmoud Khan's fort, and another corps was to occupy the Balla Hissar. Sir William then warned me to be ready to gallop to the king with the intelligence of the approach of the regiment, and to acquaint him with Ukhbar's proposal. On one of us remarking that the scheme seemed a dangerous one, and asking him if he did not apprehend any treachery, he replied—'Dangerous it is, but if it succeeds, it is worth all risks; the rebels have not fulfilled even one article of the treaty, and I have no confidence in them, and if by it we can only save our honour, all will be well; at any rate, I would rather suffer a hundred deaths, than live the last six weeks over again.' We proceeded to near the usual spot, and met sirdar Mohammed Ukhbar Khan, who was accompanied by several Ghilzie chiefs, Mohammed Shah Khan, Dost Mohammed Khan, Khoada Bux Khan, Azad Khan, &c. After the usual salutations, the envoy presented a valuable horse which Ukhbar had asked for, and which had been that morning purchased from captain Grant for 3000 rupees. The sirdar acknowledged the attention, and expressed his thanks for a handsome brace of double-barrelled pistols which the envoy had purchased from me, and sent to him with his carriage and pair of horses the day before.

'The party dismounted, and horse-cloths were spread on a small hillock which partially concealed us from cantonments, and which was chosen, they said, as being free from snow. The envoy threw himself on the bank with Mohammed Ukhbar, and captains Trevor and Mackenzie beside him; I stood behind sir William, till, pressed by Dost Mohammed Khan, I knelt on one knee, having first called the envoy's attention to the number of Afghans around us,

saying, that if the subject of the conference was of that secret nature I believed it to be, they had better be removed. He spoke to Mohammed Ukhbar, who replied, 'No, they are all in the secret.' Hardly had he so said, when I found my arms locked, my pistols and sword wrenched from my belt, and myself forcibly raised from the ground, and pushed along, Mohammed Shah Khan, who held me, calling out, 'Come along, if you value your life.' I turned, and saw the envoy lying, his head where his heels had been, and his hands locked in Mohammed Ukhbar's, consternation and horror depicted in his countenance. Seeing I could do nothing, I let myself be pulled on by Mohammed Shah Khan. Some shots were fired, and I was hurried to his horse, on which he jumped, telling me to get up behind, which I did, and we proceeded, escorted by several armed men, who kept off a crowd of Ghazees, who sprang up on every side, shouting for me to be given up for them to slay, cutting at me with their swords and knives, and poking me in the ribs with their guns; they were afraid to fire lest they should injure their chief. The horsemen kept them pretty well off, but not sufficiently so to prevent my being much bruised. In this manner we hurried towards Mahmoud Khan's fort, near which we met some hundreds of horsemen who were keeping off the Ghazees, who here were in greater numbers, and more vociferous for my blood. We, however, reached the fort in safety, and I was pushed into a small room, Mohammed Shah Khan returning to the gate of the fort, and bringing in captain Mackenzie, whose horse had there fallen. This he did, receiving a cut through his neencha (Scotch coat) on his arm, which was aimed at that officer, who was ushered into the room with me, much exhausted, and bruised by blows on his head and body. We sat down with some soldiers who were put over us, with a view to protect us from the mob, who now

surrounded the house, and who till dark continued execrating and spitting at us, calling on the men to give us up to be slaughtered.

'One produced a hand (believed to have been one of the envoy's), which appeared to have been recently cut off; another presented a blunderbuss, and was about to fire it, when it was knocked aside by one of our guard. Several of the sirdars came in during the day, and told us to be assured that no harm should befall us; that the envoy and Trevor were safe in the city (a falsehood, as will be afterwards seen). Naib Amenoollah Khan and his sons also came. The former, in great wrath, said that we either should be, or deserved to be, blown away from a gun. Mohammed Shah Khan and Dost Mohammed Khan begged he would not so talk, and took him out of the room. Towards night food was given to us, and postheens to sleep on: our watches, rings, and silk handkerchiefs were taken from us; but in all other respects we were unmolested. The followers of Mohammed Shah Khan repeatedly congratulated him on the events of the day, with one exception, viz., an old Moollah, who loudly exclaimed that 'the name of the faithful was tarnished, and that in future no belief could be placed in them; that the deed was foul, and could never be of advantage to the authors.' At midnight we were taken through the city to the house of Mohammed Ukhbar Khan, who received us courteously, lamenting the occurrences of the day. Here we found captain Skinner, and for the first time heard the dreadful and astounding intelligence of the murder of the envoy and captain Trevor, and that our lamented chief's head had been paraded through the city in triumph, and his trunk, after being dragged through the streets, stuck up in the Char Chouk, the most conspicuous part of the town. Captain Skinner told us that the report was, that on Ukhbar Khan's telling sir William to accompany him, he re-

fused, resisted, and pushed the sirdar from him; that in consequence he was immediately shot, and his body cut to pieces by the Ghazees: that captain Trevor had been conveyed behind Dost Mohammed Khan as far as Mahmoud Khan's fort, where he was cut down; but that his body was not mangled, though carried in triumph through the city. On the following morning (the 24th) we (captains Skinner, Mackenzie, and self,) were taken to Nuwab Zuman Khan's house, escorted by Sultan Jan, and other chiefs, to protect us from the Ghazees; there we met captains Connolly and Airey (hostages), and all the rebel sirdars assembled in council. The envoy's death was lamented, but his conduct severely censured, and it was said that now no faith could be placed in our words. A new treaty, however, was discussed, and sent to the general and major Pottinger; and towards evening we returned as we came to Mohammed Ukhbar's, where I remained prisoner, but well and courteously treated, till the morning of the 26th, when I was sent to Naib Amenoolah Khan. On reaching his house, I was ushered into his private apartment. The Naib received me kindly, showed me the envoy's original letter in reply to Mohammed Ukhbar's proposition touching his being made Shah Shujah's wusseeer, receiving a lac of rupees on giving the Naib a prisoner to us, thirty lacs on the final settlement of the insurrection, &c. To this the Naib added, that the envoy had told Mohammed Ukhbar's cousin, that a lac of rupees would be given for his (Amenoolah Khan's) head. I promptly replied "'Tis false," that sir William had never done so, that it was utterly foreign and repugnant to his nature and to British usage. The Naib expressed himself in strong terms against the envoy, contrasting his own fair and open conduct with that of sir William. He told me that general Elphinstone and major Pottinger had begged I might be released, as my presence

was necessary to enable them to prepare bills on India, which it had been arranged the sirdars were to get. After some delay, consequent on my asking for captain Mackenzie to be released with me, and Ukhbar's stoutly refusing the release of either of us, I was sent into cantonments on the morning of the 29th, escorted by the Naib's eldest son, and a strong party of horse and foot, being disguised as an Afghan, for my greater protection. I must here record, that nothing could exceed the Naib's kindness and attention to me while under his roof. I have the honour to be, &c.

'G. ST. P. LAWRENCE, Mil. Sec.
late Envoy and Minister.'

'Camp Zoudah, May 10, 1842.'

(Captain Mackenzie's account of the affair leaves no room for doubt that sir William fell by the hand of Ukhbar Khan; being shot through the body with a pistol, the envoy's, own gift to the sirdar.) 'But (proceeds lieutenant Eyre) what were our troops about all this time? Were no steps taken to rescue the envoy and his friends from their perilous position? Where was the body-guard which followed them from cantonments? These questions will naturally occur to all who read the foregoing pages; and I wish it were in my power to render satisfactory answers.

'The body-guard had only got a few hundred yards from the gate, in their progress to the scene of conference, when they suddenly faced about and came galloping back, several shots being fired at them in their retreat. Lieutenant Le Geyt, in passing through the gate, exclaimed that the envoy had been carried off; and it was believed that, finding his men would not advance to the rescue, he came back for assistance. But the intelligence he brought, instead of rousing our leaders to instant action, seemed to paralyze their faculties; and, although it was evident that our envoy had been basely entrapped, if not actually murdered,

before our very gate, and though on now crowds of Afghans, horse and foot, were seen passing and re-passing to and fro in hostile array, between Mahmoud's fort and the place of meeting, not a gun was opened upon them; not a soldier was stirred from his post; no sortie was apparently even thought of; treachery was allowed to triumph in open day; the murder of a British envoy was perpetrated in the face and within musket-shot of a British army; and not only was no effort made to avenge the dastardly deed, but the body was left lying on the plain to be mangled and insulted, and finally carried off to be paraded in the public market by a ruffianly mob of fanatical barbarians.

Intense was the anxiety and wretched the suspense felt by all during the rest of the day. A number of Afghans, who were trafficking in cantonments at the time of the conference, on hearing the report of fire-arms in that direction, endeavoured to escape, but were detained by the officer at the gate. No certain tidings regarding the envoy could be obtained. Many confidently affirmed that he was alive and unharmed in Mahmoud's fort; but lieutenant Warren stoutly maintained that he had kept his eye upon sir William from the moment of his leaving the gate, and had distinctly seen him fall to the ground, and the Afghans hacking at his body. The agony of his poor wife during this dread interval of suspense may be imagined. The extraordinary inaction thus prevailing among those whom one would think the danger would have made most energetic, is wholly unaccountable, save we go to the heathen method of seeking causation in such cases, and pronounce 'Quos Jupiter vult perdere, prius dementat.'

Major Pottinger now assumed the office of political agent; and the chiefs soon after proposed that the following clauses should be added to the treaty which had been concluded

with sir William: 'that we should leave behind all our guns, excepting six; that we should immediately give up all our treasures; and that the hostages should be all exchanged for married men, with their wives and families.' The major, however, opposing the demands, general Elphinstone called a council of war, whereat the new agent declared his conviction that no confidence could be placed in a treaty formed with the Afghan chiefs, and that our only honourable course was either to hold out at Kabul, or to force a retreat to Jellalabad. The officers composing the council (the general, brigadiers Shelton and Anquetil, colonel Chambers, and captains Bellew and Grant) one and all declared both these courses to be impracticable; and it was accordingly determined, *nem. con.*, that major Pottinger should at once renew the negotiations which had been commenced by sir William, and that the sums promised to the chiefs by that functionary, previous to his murder, should be paid. The major's objections (continues Mr. Eyre) being thus overruled, the tendered treaty was forthwith accepted; and four married hostages, with their wives and children, being required by the chiefs, a circular was sent round, to ascertain if that number would volunteer to remain, a salary of 2000 rupees per month being guaranteed to each, as an inducement. Such, however, was the horror entertained of Afghan treachery since the late tragical occurrence (and, surely, Mr. Eyre, natural enough,) that some officers went so far as to say they would sooner shoot their wives at once, than commit them to the charge of men who had proved themselves devoid of common honour and humanity. Such unexpected resistance led to a relinquishment of the council's plan; and the chiefs were informed that it was contrary to the usages of war to give up ladies as hostages, and that the general could not consent to an arrangement which would brand him with perpetual dis-

grace in his own country.' Surely this whole transaction (the proposal to the officers, and then the going counter to the determinate order of council,) proves how utterly incapable the general had become of helping his fellow-countrymen in their dreadful emergency. No wonder that chiefs, treacherous by education, and, when dealing with the enemies of their faith, by religion, should take advantage of such unparalleled displays of weakness; and in spite of all the representations of major Pottinger, and such sensible men as Mr. Eyre, general Elphinstone continued to treat, and to confide in the professions of the chiefs, till it was impossible any longer to maintain his position. Famine was in his camp, discipline had almost disappeared, and the Afghans, emboldened by impunity, at last attempted to force an entrance into the cantonment. From December 26 to January 6, the military council allowed itself to be cajoled with idle negotiations regarding an escort and provisions; but at length, when the *natural* enemy, snow, (which had, ceaselessly as noiselessly, gone on whitening mountain and plain,) had accumulated to a knee depth in every part where the path of retreat must be sought, it was resolved to commence the march upon Jellalabad! Although we have already given an outline of the retreat, we must glance at some parts of lieutenant Eyre's statement. 'It was on the morning of January 6, 1842, that the British force in Kabul moved out of its cantonments, in which it had sustained a two months' siege, to encounter the miseries of a winter march through a country of perhaps unparalleled difficulty; where every mountain defile, if obstinately defended by a determined enemy, must inevitably prove the grave of hundreds. Dreary indeed was the scene over which, with drooping spirits and dismal forebodings, we had to bend our unwilling steps. Deep snow covered every inch of mountain and plain with one un-

spotted sheet of dazzling white; and so intensely bitter was the cold, as to penetrate and defy the defence of the warmest clothing. No signs of the promised escort appeared; but at an early hour the preparations commenced for our march. A cut was made through the eastern rumpart, to open an additional passage for the troops and baggage; a sufficient number of gun-waggons and platform planks were taken down to the river for the formation of a temporary bridge; and every available camel and yaboo (the whole amounting to 2000) was laden with military stores, commissariat supplies, and such small proportion of camp equipment as was indispensably necessary to shelter the troops in a climate of extraordinary rigour. The strength of the whole force at this time was, so far as can now be ascertained, very nearly as follows:—690 Europeans: viz., 1 troop of horse artillery, 90; her majesty's 44th foot, 600. Next, 970 cavalry: viz., 5th regiment light cavalry, two squadrons, 260; 5th Shah's irregular cavalry (Anderson's), 500; Skinner's horse, 1 Rissalah, 70; 4th irregular horse, 1 Rissalah, 70; mission escort, or body guard, 70. Then 2840 foot: viz., 5th native infantry, 700; 37th native infantry, 600; 54th native infantry, 650; 6th Shah's infantry, 600; sappers and miners, 20; Shah's sappers and miners, 240; half the mountain train, 30. And lastly, 6 horse-artillery guns, and three mountain-train guns. Besides the above, the camp followers amounted, at a very moderate computation, to about 12,000 men, besides women and children. These proved from the very first mile a serious clog upon our movements, and were, indeed, the main cause of our subsequent misfortunes. It is to be devoutly hoped that every future commander-in-chief of the Indian army will adopt decisive measures, to prevent a force employed on field service from being ever again afflicted with such a curse. It was getting dark before the main

body of this devoted multitude got near of the gates ; and by that time thousands of the enemy thronged the whole area of the evacuated cantonments, rending the air with exulting cries, and committing every kind of atrocity. The rear-guard, unable in any other way to restrain its furious enemies, to secure its own safety, took up a position on the plain ; and at length, when the villainous Moslims, weary of plundering and murdering by force of arm, began to line the ramparts, and to annoy the retreaters with a destructive fire of juzails, it was found necessary to spike and abandon two of the horse-artillery guns.

Night had now closed around ; but the Ghazees, having fired the residency and almost every other building in the cantonment, the conflagration illuminated the surrounding country for several miles, presenting a spectacle of fearful sublimity. In the mad fervour of their religious zeal, these ignorant fanatics even set fire to the gun-carriages belonging to the various pieces of ordnance, which we had left in position round the works ; of whose use the Afghan chiefs were thus luckily deprived. The general had been often urged to destroy these guns, rather than suffer them to fall into the enemy's hands ; but he considered that it would have been a breach of the treaty to do so. Before the rear-guard commenced its march, lieutenant Hardyman, of the 5th light cavalry, with fifty rank and file, were stretched lifeless on the snow. Much baggage was abandoned at starting, and much was plundered on the road. Scores of worn-out sepoys and camp followers lined the way, having sat down in despair to perish in the snow. It was two A. M. ere the rear-guard reached camp at Bygram, a distance of only five miles. Here all was confusion. The tents had been pitched without the slightest regard to regularity, those of different regiments being huddled together in one intricate mass, mixed up

with baggage, camp followers, camels, and horses, in a way which beggars description. The flimsy canvass of the soldier's tents was but a poor protection from the cold, which towards morning became more and more intense ; and thousands of poor wretched creatures were obliged to lie down on the bare snow, without either shelter, fire, or food. Several died during the night ; amongst whom was an European conductor of ordnance. About twenty juzailchees, who still held faithfully to captain M'Kenzie, suffered less than the rest, owing to their systematic mode of proceeding. Their first step on reaching the ground was to clear a small space from the snow, where they then laid themselves down in a circle, closely packed together, with their feet meeting in the centre ; all the warm clothing they could muster among them being spread equally over the whole. By these simple means, sufficient animal warmth was generated to preserve them from being frostbitten ; and captain M'Kenzie, who himself shared their homely bed, declared that he had felt scarcely any inconvenience from the cold. It was different with our sepoys and camp followers, who, having had no former experience of such hardships, were ignorant how they might best provide against them ; and the proportion of those who escaped without suffering in some degree from frostbites, was very small. Yet this was but the beginning of our sorrows. At eight A. M., on the 7th of January, the force moved off in the reverse order of the day previous — if that could be called order which consisted of a mingled mob of soldiers, camp-followers, and baggage-cattle, preserving not even the faintest semblance of that regularity and discipline on which depended our only chance of escape from the dangers which threatened us. Even at this early stage of the retreat scarcely one-half of the sepoys were fit for duty ; hundreds had, from sheer in-

ability to keep their ranks, joined the non-combatants, and thus increased the confusion. As for the Shah's 6th infantry, it was nowhere to be found; only a few straggling files were perceptible here and there; and it was generally believed that the majority of the regiment had absconded during the night to Kaubul. At starting, large clods of hardened snow adhered so firmly to the hoofs of our horses, that a chisel and hammer would have been requisite to dislodge them. The very air we breathed froze in its passage out of the mouth and nostrils, forming a coating of small icicles on our moustaches and beards.' At Bootkhak, captain Skinner, on finding Ukhbar Khan to be encamped near at hand, obtained an audience of him. 'Mohammed Ukhbar,' continues Mr. Eyre, 'now informed captain Skinner that he had been sent by the chiefs to escort us to Jellalabad, and declared that we had been attacked in consequence of having marched contrary to their wishes. He insisted on our halting at Bootkhak till the following morning; in which case he would provide food, forage, and firewood for the troops: but he said he should expect six hostages, to insure our not marching beyond Tezeen before tidings should be received of general Sale's evacuation of Jellalabad, for which an order had been already despatched to that officer, in compliance with the stipulations of the treaty.' No man in his senses would have relied further on one, whose guile and treachery had been so fearfully and constantly manifested; nevertheless orders were issued to the troops to delay the march; and they were brought to a halt on some high ground near the entrance of the Khoord Kaubul Pass, having in two days accomplished a distance of only ten miles from Kaubul. 'Here, again, the confusion soon became indescribable.' Suffice it to say, that an immense multitude of from 14,000 to 13,000 men, with several hundred cavalry horses and

baggage cattle, were closely jammed together in one monstrous, unmanageable, jumbling mass. Night again closed over us, with its attendant train of horrors,—starvation, cold, exhaustion, death.' The general was a little surprised to find he had done wrong in so obligingly halting the forces to suit the pleasure of the merciless Moslim, whose superior tact was thus perpetually leading him into fresh errors; but his surprise did not exhibit itself till he found the Afghans again firing upon the crowds under his guidance. Her majesty's 44th foot, however, who on this occasion behaved with a gallantry and resolution worthy of British soldiers, attacked the position of their tormentors, and compelled their retreat; and on the general's sending captain Skinner again to Ukhbar, to complain of his want of faith, that sirdar demanded that major Pottinger, and captains Lawrence and Mackenzie, should immediately be made over to him, 'which,' says lieutenant Eyre, 'was immediately done, and hostilities again ceased. The sirdar also promised to send forward some influential man to clear the pass from the Ghilzies who occupied it, and who were lying in wait for our approach. Once more, therefore, the living mass of men and animals (on the 8th) was in motion. At the entrance of the pass, an attempt was made to separate the troops from the non-combatants, which was but partially successful, and created considerable delay. The rapid effects of two nights' exposure to the frost in disorganizing the force can hardly be conceived. It had so nipped the hands and feet of even the strongest men, as completely to prostrate their powers, and incapacitate them for service: even the cavalry, who suffered less than the rest, were obliged to be lifted on their horses. In fact, only a few hundred serviceable fighting men remained.'

The promise of Ukhbar Khan to stay the Ghilzies was like all his former promises, a mere trick still

further to engulf his wretched victims; for he had quitted Kaubul and followed the steps of the army avowedly for the purpose of insuring its destruction, and every measure he adopted was directed towards that end. Lieutenant Eyre was told by one who had been present, that on the morning of the departure, Mohammed Uklbar and Sultan Jan made their appearance, booted and spurred, before the assembly of the chiefs, and on being asked by Nuwah Zeman Shah, where they were going, Mohammed replied, 'I am going to slay all the Feringhee dogs, to be sure.' Again, on this very passage of our troops through the Khoord Kaubul Pass, he followed with some chiefs in the rear, and (as we have before related) in the same breath called to the Ghilzies, in Persian, to desist from, and in Pushtu, to continue firing. 'This,' adds the lieutenant, 'explains the whole mystery of the massacre, and clears up every doubt respecting Mohammed Uklbar's treachery.'

We now come to the passage of the Khoord Kaubul. 'The idea of threading the stupendous pass before us, in the face of an armed tribe of bloodthirsty barbarians, with such a dense irregular multitude, was frightful; and the spectacle then presented by that waving sea of animated beings, the majority of whom a few fleeting hours would transform into a line of lifeless carcases to guide the future traveller on his way, can never be forgotten by those who witnessed it. We had so often been deceived by Afghan professions, that little or no confidence was placed in the present truce; and we commenced our passage through the dreaded pass in no very sanguine temper of mind. This truly formidable defile is about five miles from end to end, and is shut on either hand by a line of lofty hills, between whose precipitous sides the sun at this season could dart but a momentary ray. Down the centre dashed a mountain torrent, whose impetuous course the frost in vain

attempted to arrest, though it succeeded in lining the edges with thick layers of ice, over which the snow lay consolidated in slippery masses, affording no very easy footing for our jaded animals. This stream we had to cross and re-cross about eight-and-twenty times. As we proceeded onwards, the defile gradually narrowed, and the Ghilzies were observed hastening to crown the heights in considerable force. A hot fire was opened on the advance, with whom were several ladies, who, seeing their only chance was to keep themselves in rapid motion, galloped forward at the head of all, running the gauntlet of the enemy's bullets which whizzed in hundreds about their ears, until they were fairly out of the pass. Providentially the whole escaped, with the exception of lady Sale, who received a slight wound in the arm. It ought, however, to be mentioned, that several of Mohammed Uklbar's principal adherents, who had preceded the advance, exerted themselves strenuously to keep down the fire; but nothing could restrain the Ghilzies, who seemed fully determined that nobody should interfere to disappoint them of their prey. Onward moved the crowd into the thickest of the fire, and fearful was the slaughter that ensued. An universal panic speedily prevailed; and thousands, seeking refuge in flight, hurried forward to the front, abandoning baggage, arms, ammunition, women, and children, regardless for the moment of every thing but their own lives.

'The rearguard, consisting of her majesty's 44th, and 54th native infantry, suffered severely; and at last, finding that delay was only destruction, they followed the general example and made the best of their way to the front. Another horse-artillery gun was abandoned, and the whole of its artillerymen slain. Captain Anderson's eldest girl, and captain Boyd's youngest boy, fell into the hands of the Afghans. It is supposed that 3000 souls perished in this pass,

amongst whom were captain Paton, assistant quartermaster-general, and lieutenant St. George, 37th native infantry, majors Griffiths, 37th native infantry, and Scott, her majesty's 44th, captains Bott, 5th cavalry, and Troop, brigadier-major Shah's force. Dr. Cardew and lieutenant Sturt, engineers, were wounded, the latter mortally. This fine young officer had nearly cleared the defile, when he received his wound, and would have been left on the ground to be hacked to pieces by the Ghilzies, who followed in the rear to complete the work of slaughter, but for the generous intrepidity of lieutenant Mein, of her majesty's 13th light infantry, who, on hearing what had befallen him, went back to his succour, and stood by him for several minutes, at the imminent risk of his own life, vainly intreating aid from the passers by. He was at length joined by serjeant Deane, of the sappers, with whose assistance he dragged his friend over a pile through the remainder of the pass; when he succeeded in mounting him on a miserable pony, and conducted him in safety to the camp, where the unfortunate officer lingered till the following morning, and was the only man of the force who received a Christian burial. On the force reaching Khoord Kaubul, snow began to fall, and continued till morning; and miserable indeed was the *bivouac* of that night.' On the next morning (the 9th) the general had intended to march at ten; but a large portion of the troops, with nearly all the camp-followers, had moved on without orders so early as eight, A.M., and had advanced about a mile from the camp, when they were recalled by the general, in consequence of a communication from Ukhbar, to the effect that, if the force would again halt, he would make proper arrangements for escorting it safely. 'There can be no doubt,' says Mr. Eyre, 'that the general feeling in camp was adverse to a halt, and that our only chance of escape consisted in moving on as fast

as possible. This additional delay, therefore, and prolongation of their sufferings in the snow, of which one more march would have carried them clear, made a very unfavourable impression on the minds of the native soldiery, who now for the first time began very generally to entertain the idea of deserting; nor is it at all astonishing that these symptoms should have first developed themselves among the Shah's native cavalry, who were, for the most part, exceedingly young soldiers, and saw full well the result of all these useless and pernicious delays.' Towards noon of the same day, captain Skinner, who seems especially to have reposed confidence in Mohammed Ukhbar, came from that sirdar with a proposition 'that all the widowed ladies and married families should, to insure themselves against further danger, be placed under his protection, he promising to escort them safely to Jellalabad, keeping them one day's march in the rear of the army.' At the recommendation of captain Skinner, it is said, the general consented to the arrangement; and the ladies and children were all, with two wounded officers, sent forward to the camp of the sirdar. 'Up to this time,' says Mr. Eyre, 'scarcely one of the ladies had tasted a meal since leaving Kaubul. Some had infants only a few days old at the breast, and were unable to stand without assistance; yet these helpless women had already been obliged to rough it on the backs of camels, and on the tops of the baggage yahoos; and those who had a horse to ride, or were capable of sitting on one, were considered fortunate indeed. Some were so far advanced in pregnancy, that, under ordinary circumstances, a walk across a drawing-room would have been thought too great an exertion. Most had been without shelter since quitting the cantonment; their servants had nearly all deserted or been killed; and with the exception of lady Macnaghten and Mrs. Trevor, they had

lost all their baggage—having nothing in the world left but the clothes on their backs: those, in the case of some of the invalids, consisted of night-dresses in which they had started from Kabul in their litters. Under such circumstances, a few more hours would probably have seen some of them stiffened corpses. The offer of Mohammed Ukhbar was, consequently, their only chance of preservation. It is not wonderful that, from persons so circumstanced, the general's proposition should have met with little or no opposition; although it was a matter of serious doubt if the men were not rushing into the very jaws of death, by placing themselves at the mercy of a man who had so lately imbrued his hands in the blood of a British envoy, whom he had lured to destruction by similar professions of peace and goodwill. But whatever may have been the secret intent of Ukhbar's heart, he was at this time our professed friend and ally, having undertaken to escort the whole force to Jellalabad in safety. Whatever suspicions, therefore, have been entertained of his hypocrisy, it was not in the character of an enemy that he gained possession of the married families; on the contrary, he stood pledged for their safe escort to Jellalabad, no less than for that of the army to which they belonged; and by their unwarrantable detention as prisoners, no less than by the treacherous massacre of the force, he broke the universal law of nations, and was guilty of an unpardonable breach of faith.' We confess we do not comprehend these last observations; and if they are intended as an apology for any of Ukhbar Khan's perfidies, lieutenant Eyre must be acquainted with some doings of the sirdar, with which he has not ventured to acquaint his readers. But there is no ground for believing that the ultimate safety of the female captives was the result of Ukhbar's civility; and had there not been a traitor in his own camp, they would either all have been put to death, or

sold into slavery. When general Pollock had advanced against him in the second invasion of Kabul, the sirdar declared to captain Troup, 'with an expression of savage determination in his countenance, that so surely as Pollock had advanced, he would take all the Feringhee women into Turkistan, and make presents of them to the different chiefs.'

All the fresh promises of Ukhbar, with regard to supplies of food, &c., were as usual found fallacious; and after another night of cold and starvation, wherein numbers died, the march began again early on the 10th. 'The European soldiers were now almost the only efficient men left, the Hindustances having all suffered more or less from the effects of frost in their hands and feet; few were able even to hold a musket, much less to pull a trigger; in fact, the prolonged delay in the snow had paralyzed the mental and bodily powers of the strongest men, rendering them incapable of any useful exertion. Hope seemed to have died in every breast. The wildness of terror was exhibited in every countenance. The advanced guard (consisting of her majesty's 44th foot, the sole remaining horse artillery gun, and about fifty troopers of the fifth cavalry), having managed, with much difficulty, to push their way to the front, proceeded a couple of miles without molestation, as far as a narrow gorge between the precipitous spurs of two hills, through which flowed a small stream. Towards this point numbers of Afghan foot had been observed hurrying, with the evident intention of opposing the passage of the troops, and were now found to occupy the height, on the right in considerable force. No sooner did the advance approach within shot, than the enemy, securely perched on their post of vantage, commenced the attack, pouring a destructive fire upon the crowded column, as it slowly drew nigh to the fatal spot. Fresh numbers fell at every volley, and the gorge was soon choked with the dead and dying.

The unfortunate sepoys, seeing no means of escape, and driven to utter desperation, cast away their arms and accoutrements, which only clogged their movements without contributing to their defence, and along with the camp-followers fled for their lives. The Afghans now rushed down upon their helpless and unresisting victims sword in hand, and a general massacre took place. The last small remnant of the native infantry regiments was here scattered and destroyed; and the public treasure, with all the remaining baggage, fell into the hands of the enemy. Meanwhile, the advance, after pushing through Tungee with great loss, had reached Kubburi-Jubbur, about five miles ahead, without more opposition. Here they halted to enable the rear to join; but, from the few stragglers who from time to time came up, the astounding truth was brought to light, that, of all who had that morning marched from Khoord Kaubul, they were almost the sole survivors, nearly the whole of the main and rear columns having been cut off and destroyed. About fifty horse artillery, with one twelve-pounder howitzer, seventy files of her majesty's 44th, and 150 cavalry troopers, now composed the whole Kaubul force; but, notwithstanding the slaughter and dispersion that had taken place, the camp-followers still formed a considerable body. Captain Skinner was now sent somewhat boldly by the at length irritated general to remonstrate with the villanous Ukhbar, who, 'as a last resource,' modestly proposed (by which, we presume, he at once opened the general's 'hard-to-open' eyes), 'that the few remaining troops should lay down their arms, and place themselves entirely under his safeguard;' but he at the same time suggested, that the camp-followers, who still amounted to many thousands, should be left to themselves to find their way to India, or, to use his own merciful speech, 'that they should be left to their fate.' Such terms happily were not assented to; and

the march being resumed, the shattered force came to where the way led down the steep descents of the Huft Kohitul (or seven passes) into a narrow defile, or confined bed of a mountain stream.

A ghastly sight here met the eye, the ground being strewn with the bodies of camp-followers, with whom were several wounded officers and soldiers, who, having gone on ahead of the column, were attacked on reaching the foot of the hill, and massacred. The heights commanding the defile (which was about three miles long) were found crowned with the enemy. Mohammed Ukhbar and his train had taken a short cut over the hills to Tezeen, and were followed by the few remaining troopers of the irregular cavalry. Dr. Magiath, seeing them take, as he thought, a wrong direction, hastened to recal them, and was taken prisoner by a Ghilzie chief. In their passage down the defile, a destructive fire was maintained on the troops from the heights on either side, and fresh numbers of dead and wounded lined the course of the stream. Brigadier Shelton commanded the rear with a few Europeans, and but for his persevering energy and unflinching fortitude in repelling the assailants, it is probable the whole would have been there sacrificed. The diminished remnant reached the encamping ground in the Tezeen valley at about four o'clock P. M., having lost since starting from Kaubul, inclusive of camp-followers, about 12,000 men: no less than fifteen officers were killed and wounded in this day's disastrous march. Although it was now sufficiently plain that Mohammed Ukhbar either could not or would not act up to his friendly professions, the general endeavoured to renew his worse than useless negotiation with that chief, in the faint hope that something might still be done to better the situation of the troops. Captain Skinner, who was deputed on the occasion, returned with precisely the same answer as before; and, as the

to his proposal, all hope of aid from that quarter was at an end. It was now determined to make an effort, under cover of darkness, to reach Jugdaluk, a distance of twenty-two miles, by an early hour of the following morning, the principal object being to get through the strong and dangerous pass of that place before the enemy should have sufficient notice of their intention, to occupy it in any force. As there existed a short cut from Tezeen to Jugdaluk over the hills, the success of the attempt was very doubtful; but the lives of all depended on the issue; and at seven o'clock P.M., the little band renewed its forlorn and dismal march, word having been previously sent to Mohammed Ukhbar that it was the general's intention to move only as far as Seh Baba, distant seven miles. On moving off, the last gun was loaded, and with it Dr. Cardew, who had been lashed to it in the hope of saving him. This gentleman had rendered himself conspicuous from the commencement of the siege, for his zeal and gallantry, and had become a great favourite with the soldiery in consequence, by whom his hapless fate was sincerely lamented. Dr. Duff, the superintending-surgeon of the force, experienced no better fortune, being left in a state of utter exhaustion on the road, midway to Seh Baba. Little or no molestation was experienced by the force until reaching Seh Baba, when a few shots being fired at the rear, there was an immediate rush of camp-followers to the front, and the main body of the 44th European soldiers, who had hitherto been well in advance, getting mixed up in the crowd, could not be extricated by withdrawing them to the rear, owing to the narrowness of the road, which now traversed the hills to Burik-ab. Peas of the neighbouring tribes were by this time on the alert, and fired at random from the heights, it being fortunately too dark for them to aim with precision; but the panic-

stricken camp-followers now resembled a herd of startled deer, and fluctuated backwards and forwards, *en masse*, at every shot, blocking up the entire road, and fatally retarding the progress of the little body of soldiers who, under Brigadier Shelton, brought up the rear. At Burik-ab a heavy fire was encountered by the hindmost from some caves near the road-side, occasioning fresh disorder, which continued all the way to Kutter Sung, where the advance arrived at dawn of day, and awaited the junction of the rear, which did not take place till eight o'clock A.M. After a vast deal of hard fighting, wherein brigadier Shelton bravely headed his little band, the troops reached Jugdaluk, ten miles beyond Kutter Sung, (on the 11th,) and a position was taken behind some ruined walls that crowned a height by the road-side. Here at about half-past three o'clock, a message having been brought from Mohammed Ukhbar to captain Skinner, requesting his presence, that officer promptly obeyed the call, hoping thereby, even at the eleventh hour, to effect some arrangement for the preservation of those who survived. The harassed and worn-out troops, in the expectation of a temporary truce during his absence, threw themselves down to snatch a brief repose; but even this much-needed luxury was denied them by their vigilant foes, who now, from their commanding position, poured into the crowded inclosure death-dealing volleys in rapid succession, causing the utmost consternation among the camp-followers, who rushed wildly out, in the vain hope of finding shelter from the fire. At this perilous juncture, captain Bygrave, with about fifteen brave Europeans, sallied forth, in the full determination to drive the enemy from the heights, or perish in the attempt. Unflinchingly they charged up the hill, the enemy retreating before them, with the greatest trepidation. The respite, however, thus signally gained was but of short duration; for the heroic little band

had no sooner returned, than the enemy reoccupied their posts of vantage, and resumed their fatal fire. Thus passed the time until 5 p. m., when captain Skinner returned from his interview with Ukhbar, bringing a message to the general from that chief; who requested his presence at a conference, and demanded brigadier Shelton and captain Johnson as hostages for the evacuation of Jellalabad. The general, seeing no alternative, made over the temporary command to brigadier Anquetil, and departed with the two above-named officers, under the escort of Mohammed Shah Khan. The troops witnessed their departure with despair, having seen enough of Afghan treachery to convince them that these repeated negotiations were mere hollow artifices, designed to engender confidence in their victims, preparatory to a fresh sacrifice of blood. The general and his companions were received by the sirdar with every outward token of kindness, and no time was lost in supplying them with the bodily sustenance they so greatly needed; they were likewise assured that immediate arrangements should be made for the supply of food to the famishing troops, and for their safe escort to Jellalabad; after which they were shown into a small tent, to enjoy, for the first time since leaving Khoord Kaubul, a quiet and refreshing sleep. General Elphinstone, however, was permitted not to return; and he died soon after a prisoner, worn down with infirmity of body and harass of spirit, at a small fort in the Zanduk valley, to which the perfidious chieftain, whom he had so often trusted, and by whom he had so often been betrayed, had conveyed him. From the time of the devoted general's departure, the situation of the retreating troops 'had been in truth (continues Mr. Eyre) one of dark and cruel suspense, unenlightened by one solitary ray of hope. At an early hour next morning, before the enemy had yet made their appearance on the hills, major Thain, accom-

panied by captain Skinner, rode out a few hundred paces in the direction of Mohammed Ukhbar's camp, in expectation of meeting a messenger from the sirdar to the last-named officer. A Ghilzie soldier suddenly made his appearance, and, passing major Thain, who was several yards in advance, went close up to captain Skinner, and shot him with a pistol through the face! Major Thain instantly returned to camp, and announced this act of treachery. The unfortunate officer was carried inside the inclosure, and lingered in great pain until three o'clock p. m. In him the state lost an officer, of whose varied merits as a soldier and a man it is difficult to speak too highly. A deep feeling of anguish and despair now pervaded the whole assemblage. The extremes of hunger, thirst, and fatigue, were suffered alike by all; added to which, the Afghans again crowned the heights, and recommenced hostilities, keeping up a galling fire the whole day, with scarcely half an hour's intermission. Sally after sally was made by the Europeans, bravely led on by major Thain, captain Bygrave, and lieutenants Wade and Macartney; but again and again the enemy returned to worry and destroy. Night came, and all further delay in such a place being useless, the whole sallied forth, determined to pursue the route to Jellalabad at all risks. The sick and wounded were necessarily abandoned to their fate. Descending into the valley of Jugdaluk, they pursued their way along the bed of the stream for about a mile and a half, encountering a desultory fire from the Ghilzies encamped in the vicinity, who were evidently not quite prepared to see them at such an hour, but were soon fully on the alert, some following up the rear, others pressing forward to occupy the pass. This formidable defile is about two miles long, exceedingly narrow, and closed in by lofty and precipitous heights. The road has a considerable slope upwards; and, on nearing the summit,

further progress was found to be obstructed by two strong barriers, formed of branches of the prickly holly-oak, stretching completely across the defile. Immense delay and confusion took place in the general struggle to force a passage through these unexpected obstacles, which gave ample time for the Ghilzies to collect in force. A terrible fire was now poured in from all quarters, and a massacre even worse than that of Tunga Tareekce commenced; the Afghans rushing in furiously upon the pent-up crowd of troops and followers, and committing wholesale slaughter. A miserably small remnant managed to clear the barriers. Twelve officers, amongst whom was brigadier Anquetil, were killed. Upwards of forty others succeeded in pushing through; about twelve of whom, being pretty well mounted, rode on ahead of the rest with the few remaining cavalry, intending to make the best of their way to Jellalabad. Small straggling parties of the Europeans marched on under different officers; the country became more open, and they suffered little molestation for several miles; most of the Ghilzies being too busily engaged in the plundering of the dead to pursue the living. But much delay was occasioned by the anxiety of the men to bring on their wounded comrades; and the rear was much harassed by sudden onsets from parties stationed on the heights, under which the road occasionally wound. On reaching the Sourkab river, they found the enemy in possession of the bridge; and a hot fire was encountered in crossing the ford below it, by which lieutenant Cadet, her majesty's 44th, was killed, together with several privates.

The morning of the 13th dawned as they approached Gundamuck, revealing to the enemy, who had by this time harassed considerably in their front and rear, the insignificance of their numerical strength. To avoid the vigorous assaults that were now made by their confident foe,

they were compelled to leave the road, and take up a defensive position on a height to the left of it, where they made a resolute stand, determined to sell their lives at the dearest possible price. At this time they could only muster about twenty muskets. Some Afghan horsemen, approaching from the direction of Gundamuck, were now beckoned to, and an attempt was made by lieutenant Hay to enter upon some pacific arrangement. Hostilities were for a few minutes suspended; and, at the invitation of a chief, major Griffiths, the senior officer, accompanied by Mr. Blewitt, to act as an interpreter, descended the hill to a conference. Several Afghans now ascended the height, and assumed a friendly tone towards the little party there stationed; but the calm was of short duration,—for the soldiers, getting provoked at several attempts being made to snatch their arms, resumed a hostile attitude, and drove their intruders fiercely down. The die was now cast, and their fate sealed; for the enemy, taking up their post on an opposite hill, marked off man after man, officer after officer, with unerring aim. Parties of Afghans rushed up at the intervals to complete the work of extermination, but were as often driven back by the still dauntless handful of invincibles. At length, nearly all being wounded, more or less, a final onset of the enemy, sword in hand, terminated the unequal struggle, and completed the dismal tragedy. Major Griffiths and Mr. Blewitt had been previously led off to a neighbouring fort, and were thus saved. Of those whom they left behind, captain Souther alone, with three or four privates, was spared, and carried off captive, having received a severe wound in the shoulder; he had tied round his waist, before leaving Jugdaluk, the colours of his regiment; which were thus singularly preserved. It only remains to relate the fate of those few officers and men who rode on ahead of the rest, after

passing the barriers. Six of the twelve officers, captains Bellew, Collyer, Hopkins, lieutenant Bird, and Drs. Harpur and Brydon, reached Futtelabad in safety, the other six having dropped gradually off by the way, and been destroyed. Deceived by the friendly professions of some peasants near the above-named town, who brought them bread to eat, they unwisely delayed a few moments, to satisfy the cravings of hunger; the inhabitants meanwhile armed themselves, and, suddenly sallying forth, cut down captain Bellew and lieutenant Bird; captains Collyer and Hopkins, and Drs. Harpur and Brydon, rode off, and were pursued; the three former were overtaken and slain, within four miles of Jellalabad; Dr. Brydon by a miracle escaped, and was the only officer, of the whole Kabul force, who reached that garrison in safety. To those who wish to know more minutely the incidents of a retreat which, 'in the military conduct that brought about such a consummation (observes Mr. Eyre), and in the treachery, disaster, and suffering that accompanied it, is perhaps without a parallel in history,' the authentic work whence we have made these extracts is most essential. The narrative of lieutenant Eyre, indeed, and the Journal of lady Sale, comprise the most important events and features of the Afghanistan war and tragedy.

Our few illustrations from each will, we trust, lead our readers to the works themselves. And now for the Journal. Its most interesting portion is necessarily that connected with the captivity of the ladies; while its general features fully corroborate lieutenant Eyre's assertions, that, to military and diplomatic mismanagement, the retreat and its disasters were owing. 'It is easy (says her ladyship) to argue on the wisdom or folly of conduct, after the catastrophe has taken place. With regard therefore to your chiefs, I shall only say, that the envoy has deeply paid for his attempt to out-diplo-

matize the Afghans. General Elphinstone, conscious that his powers of mind had become enfeebled with those of his body, finding there was no hope of general Nott's arrival to assume the command, called in another to his aid, who had but one object in view (to get back at all hazards to Hindustan). He averred that a retreat to the Balla Hissar was impossible, as we should have to fight our way (for one mile and a half!) If we could not accomplish that, how were we to get through a week's march to Jellalabad? Once in the Balla Hissar, which would have been easily defended by one thousand men, we should have had plenty of troops for foraging purposes; and the village of Ben-i-sheer, just under the Balla Hissar, would have given us a twelvemonth's provisions, if we had only made the demonstration of a night march, to have the appearance of taking them by force. Sallies from thence might also have been made into the city, where there was always a party, particularly the Kuzzilbashies, who would have covertly assisted us, until our returning fortunes permitted them to do so openly.' Arriving at Bhoodkhak, in the retreat (January 8th, 1842) 'at sunrise, no order had been issued for the march, and the confusion was fearful. The force was perfectly disorganized, nearly every man paralysed with cold, so as scarcely able to hold musket, or move. Many frozen corpses lay on the ground. The sipahces burnt their caps, accoutrements, and clothes, to keep themselves warm. Some of the enemy appearing in rear of our position, the whole of the camp-followers rushed to the front; every man, woman, and child seizing all the cattle that fell in their way, whether public or private. The ground was strewn with boxes of ammunition, plate, and property of various kinds. A cask of spirits on the ground was brought by the artillerymen, and no doubt by other Europeans. Had the whole been distributed fairly to the men, it

would have done them good,—as it was, they became too much excited. The enemy soon assembled in great numbers. Had they made a dash at us, we could have offered no resistance, and all would have been massacred.' 'We commenced our march at about mid-day, the 5th native infantry in front. The troops were in the greatest disorganization; the baggage was mixed in with the advanced guard; and the camp-followers all pushed ahead, in their precipitate flight towards Hindustan. Sturt (her ladyship's son-in-law), my daughter, Mr. Mein, and I, got up to the advance; and Mr. Mein was pointing out to us the spots where the first brigade was attacked, and where he, Sale, &c., were wounded. We had not proceeded half a mile, when we were heavily fired upon. Chiefs rode with the advance, and desired us to keep close to them. They certainly desired their followers to shoot to the people on the heights not to fire: they did so, but quite ineffectually. These chiefs certainly ran the same risk as we did; but I verily believe many of these persons would individually sacrifice themselves to rid their country of us. After passing through some very sharp firing, we came upon major Thain's horse, which had been shot through the loins. When we were supposed to be in comparative safety, poor Sturt rode back (to see after Thain, I believe): his horse was shot under him, and before he could rise from the ground, he received a severe wound in the abdomen. It was with great difficulty he was held upon a pony by two people, and brought into camp at Khoord Kaubul. The pony Mrs. Sturt rode was wounded in the ear and neck. I had fortunately only one ball in my arm; three others passed through my poshteen, near the shoulder, without doing me any injury. The party that fired on us were not above fifty yards from us; and we owed our escape to urging our horses on as fast as they could go over a road where, at any

other time, we should have walked them very carefully. The main attack of the enemy was on the column, baggage, and the rear-guard; and fortunate it was for Mrs. Sturt and myself, that we kept with the chiefs. Would to God that Sturt had done so likewise, and not gone back! The ladies were mostly travelling in kujavas, and were mixed up with the baggage and column in the pass; here they were heavily fired on, many camels were killed. On one camel were, in one kujava, Mrs. Boyd, and her youngest boy, Hugh; and in the other was Mrs. Mainwaring and her infant, scarcely three months old, and Mrs. Anderson's eldest child. This camel was shot. Mrs. Boyd got a horse to ride, and her child was put on another, behind a man, who being shortly after unfortunately killed, the child was carried off by the Afghans. Mrs. Mainwaring, less fortunate, took her own baby in her arms. Mary Anderson was carried off in the confusion. Meeting with a pony laden with treasure, Mrs. M. endeavoured to mount, and sit on the boxes, but they upset; and, in the hurry, pony and treasure were left behind; and the unfortunate lady pursued her way on foot, until, after a time, an Afghan asked her if she was wounded, and told her to mount behind him. This apparently kind offer she declined, being fearful of treachery; alleging as an excuse that she could not sit behind him, on account of the difficulty of holding her child when so mounted. This man shortly after snatched her shawl off her shoulders, and left her to her fate. Mrs. Mainwaring's sufferings were very great; and she deserves much credit for having preserved her child through these dreadful scenes. She not only had to walk a considerable distance with her child in her arms through the deep snow, but had also to pick her way over the bodies of the dead, dying, and wounded, both men and cattle, and constantly to cross streams of water, wet up to the knees, pushed

and shoved about by men and animals, the enemy keeping up a sharp fire, and several persons being killed close to her. She, however, got safe to camp with her child. It was many days ere my wet habit (there was no change of clothes during that time) became thawed. Mrs. Bourke, little Seymour Stoker and his mother, and Mrs. Cunningham, all soldiers' wives, and the child of a man of the 13th, have been carried off.' Owing to a halt that had taken place in front, the pass became completely choked up. 'At this juncture, poor Sturt was laid on the side of a bank, with his wife and myself beside him. It began snowing heavily; Johnson and Bygrave got some xummuls (coarse blankets) thrown over us. Dr. Bryce came and examined Sturt's wound: he dressed it; but I saw by the expression of his countenance that there was no hope. He afterwards kindly cut the ball out of my wrist, and dressed both my wounds.' Mohammed Ukhbar having proposed to major Pottinger, &c., in an interview at the Khoord Kaubul forts, that, as the camp was no place of safety for the ladies and children, all the married men, with their families, would do well to come over and put themselves under his protection, and those officers assenting, it only remained to propose the matter to the ladies. 'Overwhelmed with domestic affliction (writes lady Sale) neither Mrs. Sturt nor I were in a fit state to decide for ourselves, whether we would accept the sirdar's protection or not. There was but one faint hope of our ever getting safe to Jelalabad; and we followed the stream. But although there was much talk regarding our going over, all I personally know of this affair is, that I was told we were all to go, and that our horses were ready, and we must mount immediately, and be off. We were taken by a circuitous route to the Khoord Kaubul forts, where we found Mohammed Ukhbar Khan and the hostages. Mr. Boyd's little boy had been brought there, and was re-

stored to his parents. Three rooms were cleared out for us, having no outlets except a small door to each; and of course they were dark and dirty. The party to which I belonged consisted of Mrs. Trevor and seven children, lieutenant and Mrs. Walker and child, Mrs. Sturt, Mr. Mein, Mrs. Smith and Mrs. Burnes (two soldiers' wives), and young Stoker, lately brought back to us, who was saved from people who were carrying him off to the hills, and came in, covered we fear with his mother's blood; of her we have no account, nor of Mrs. Cunningham, both of the 13th. The dimensions of our room are at the utmost fourteen feet by ten. At midnight, some mutton bones and greasy rice were brought to us. All that Mrs. Sturt and I possess are the clothes on our backs, in which we quitted Kaubul.' On January 12th she notes down, 'We went to Sgh Baba; and thence out of the road, following the bed of the river, to Abdoollah Khan's fort. We passed our last gun, abandoned, with poor Dr. Cardew's body lying on it, and three Europeans close by it.' Confirmatory of the statement of Mr. Eyre, her ladyship says, further on, 'The small remnant of the army consisted of about seventy files of the 44th, fifty of the 5th cavalry, and one six-pounder gun. Observing a body of cavalry in their rear, they determined to bring their solitary gun into position, and make a last effort for existence; but on finding it was again Mohammed Ukhbar Khan, captain Skinner, by direction of the general, went over, under escort, to him, to remonstrate on the attack made on our troops, after a treaty had been entered into for our protection. He replied, he regretted it, that he could not control the Ghilzies (the inhabitants of this part of the country, with his small body of horse, about 300—but that, as the remnant of our troops was merely a few Europeans he would guarantee their safety, and that of all the European officers, to

Jellalabad, if the general would conduct them all disarmed, whilst the Afghans were to have the use of their weapons. He said his motives for this were, that should they bring their arms with them, his own followers would be afraid of treachery. To this proposition the general (for once in his senses) would not assent. The troops therefore continued their fearful march; the remnant of the camp-followers, with several wounded officers, went ahead; for five miles they saw no enemy; all who could not walk, were necessarily left behind. They descended a long steep descent to the bed of the Tezeen nullah. At this dip, the scene was horrible; the ground was covered with dead and dying, amongst whom were several officers; they had been suddenly attacked and overpowered. The enemy here crowded from the tops of the hills in all directions, down the bed of the nullah, through which the route lay for three miles; and our men continued their progress through an incessant fire from the heights, on both sides, until their arrival in the Tezeen valley, at about half-past four, P.M. The descent from the Huft Kohut was about 2000 feet; and here they lost the snow. About 12,000 persons have perished! At Seli Baba (on the 11th), Dr. Duff, the surgeon-general to the forces, who had had his hand cut off with a penknife at Tezeen, in consequence of a severe wound, was from weakness obliged to lag behind, and was two days afterwards found murdered. After general Elphinstone had complied with Ukhbar's wish, and visited him at his tent (on the 11th), he was anxious for permission to return to his troops, and offered to send brigadier Anquetil, should the sirdar require an officer in his stead. 'Johnson, by the general's desire, was sent out to the sirdar the stigma that would attach to him, as commander of the force, were he to remain in a place of comparative security, whilst such danger impended over the troops; but to this the sir-

dar would not consent.' On the following morning (the 12th), the general and his companions rose at sunrise, and found the sirdar and his party were up. 'About nine, A.M., the chiefs of the pass and the country around Soorkhab arrived. Soorkhab is about thirteen miles from Jugdaluk, towards Jellalabad, and is the usual halting-ground. The chiefs sat down to discuss affairs. They were bitter in their hatred towards us; and declared that nothing would satisfy them and their men, but our extermination. Money they would not receive. The sirdar, as far as words could prove his sincerity, did all in his power to conciliate them; and when all other arguments failed, reminded them that his father and family were in the power of the British government at Loodianah; and that vengeance would be taken on them, if mercy were not shown to the British in their power. Probably this was only done as a blind to hide his real feelings.' In two instances, the reply of the chiefs was: 'When Burnes came into this country, was not your father intreated by us to kill him, or he would go back to Hindustan, and at some future day bring an army, and take our country from us? He would not listen to our advice, and what is the consequence? Let us, now that we have the opportunity, take advantage of it; and kill those infidel dogs.' At daybreak on the 13th, Mohammed Ukhbar (after the struggle at Gundamuck on the previous day, wherein eighteen officers and fifty men had been slain) carried the general and his companions back along the pass, to wait the arrival of the ladies from Khoord Kaubul. 'They passed some 200 dead bodies, many of them Europeans; the whole naked, and covered with large gaping wounds. As the day advanced, several poor wretches of Hindustanees (camp-followers, who had escaped the massacre of the night before) made their appearance from behind rocks and from within caves, where they had taken shelter from

the murderous knives of the Afghans, and the inclemency of the climate. They had been stripped of all they possessed; and few could crawl more than a few yards, being frost-bitten in the feet. Here Johnson found two of his servants; the one had his hands and feet frost-bitten—and had a fearful sword-cut across one hand, and a musket-ball in his stomach; the other had his right arm completely cut through the bone. Both were utterly destitute of covering, and had not tasted food for five days. This suffices for a sample of the suffering of the survivors.' The ladies having been brought, the whole party proceeded towards the Lughman country, the sirdar always stating they should soon reach Jellalabad. On the 16th they halted. 'They tell us we are here only thirty miles from Jellalabad. It being Sunday, we read prayers from a Bible and Prayer-book, that were picked up on the field at Bhodokhak. The service was scarcely finished, when a clannish row commenced. Some tribes from a neighbouring fort, who had a blood-feud with the chiefs who were with us, came against the fort: a few juzails were fired; there was great talking and noise; and then it was all over. 17th, early in the morning, we were ordered to prepare to go higher up the valley. Thus all hopes (faint as they were) of going to Jellalabad, were annihilated; and we plainly saw that, whatever might be said, we were virtually prisoners, until such time as Sale shall evacuate Jellalabad, or the Dost be permitted by our government to return to this country. We had a little hail this morning; and shortly after, at about nine o'clock, we started, and travelled along the valley, which was a continuation of forts, until we arrived at Buddceabad (Budyabad), about eight or nine miles: it is situated almost at the top of the valley, and close to the first range of hills towards Kafiristan. Six rocks, forming two sides of an inner square, or citadel, are appropriated to us. This fort is

the largest in the valley, and is quite new; it belongs to Mohammed Shah Khan: it has a deep ditch and a fausse-braye all round. The walls of mud are not very thick, and are built up with planks in tiers on the inside. The buildings we occupy are those intended for the chief and his favourite wife; those for three other wives are in the outer court, and have not yet been roofed in. We number nine ladies, twenty gentlemen, and fourteen children. In the tykhana (cellar) are 17 European soldiers, two European women, and one child, (Mrs. Wade, Mrs. Burnes, and little Stoker). Mohammed Ukhbar has informed us, to our horror, that only one man of our force has succeeded in reaching Jellalabad (Dr. Brydon, of the shah's force: he was wounded in two places). Thus is verified what we were told before leaving Kaubul, 'That Mohammed Ukhbar would annihilate the whole army, except one man, who should reach Jellalabad to tell the tale.'

'19th. We luxuriated in dressing, though we had no clothes but those on our backs; but we enjoyed washing our faces very much, having had but one opportunity of doing so before since we left Kaubul. It was rather a painful process, as the glare of the sun on the snow had three times peeled my face, from which the skin came off in strips. We had a grand breakfast—dhall and radishes; the latter large hot ones that had gone to seed—the former is a common pulse eaten by the natives; but any change was good, as we find our chupatties, made of the coarse ottah, any thing but nice. Ottah is what in England is called pollard, and has to be twice sifted ere it becomes flour. The chupatties are cakes formed of this ottah mixed with water, and dried by standing by the fire set up on edge. Eating these cakes of dough is a capital recipe to obtain the hearthburn. We parch rice and barley, and make from them a substitute for coffee. Two sheep (alias lambs) are killed daily; and a

regular portion of rice and ottah given for all. The Afghans cook ; and well may we exclaim with Goldsmith, ' God sends meat, but the devil sends cooks ;' for we only get some greasy skin and bones served out as they are cooked, boiled in the same pot with the rice, all in a lump. Captain Lawrence divides it, and portions our food as justly as he can. The chupatty is at once the plate and bread ; few possess other dinner-table implements than their fingers. The rice even is rendered nauseous by having quantities of rancid ghee poured over it, such as in India we should have disdained to use for our lamps.' Again, on the same day—

' At noon I was on the top of the house, when an awful earthquake took place. I had gone up stairs to see after my clothes ; for, servants being scarce, we get a sweeper, who also acts as *sacs*, to wash for us ; and I hang them up to dry on the flat roof ; we dispense with starch and ironing ; and in our present situation we learn to do every thing that is useful. But to return to the earthquake. For some time I balanced myself as well as I could, till I felt the roof was giving way ; and I then fortunately succeeded in removing from my position, before the roof of our room fell in with a dreadful crash. The roof of the stairs also fell as I descended them, but did me no injury. All my anxiety was for Mrs. Sturt ; but I could only see a heap of rubbish. I was nearly bewildered, when I heard the joyful sound—' Lady Sale, come here ; all are safe !' and I found the whole party uninjured in the courtyard. When the earthquake first commenced in the hills in the upper part of the valley, its progress was clearly defined, coming down the valley, and throwing up dust, like the action of exploding a mine. I hope a soldier's wife may use a soldier's simile, for I know nothing else to liken it to. 21st. Dost Mohammed Khan (brother of) Mohammed Shah Khan, father-in-law of Ukhbar, the latter

one of the wealthiest Afghan chiefs) brought workmen to clear away the *debris*. He tells us that our fort is the best of forty that have suffered in this valley ; and that many are entirely thrown down. In one, a tower fell, and crushed five women and a man ; others have not a wall remaining !' Day after day, and night after night, shocks of earthquake continued, some severe, but most of them slight ; but we must now proceed to notice Ukhbar's attack on Jellalabad. While the captives were in durance, they were not aware of the sirdar's absence, from the fort, until they received news of his ill-success against general Sale. ' March 13th. Earthquakes as usual. There has been a fight at Jellalabad. A party were sent out to mine. Sale, having intelligence of their intention, planted an ambush. The enemy were first attacked from the fort ; and when they fled, they fell into the ambuscade, and were cut to pieces. Numbers of wounded Afghans have come into this and the neighbouring forts. 14th. Earthquakes in plenty. Mrs. Boyd was confined early this morning ; adding another to our list of female captives. In the evening, Afghans came in with many reports, confirming the account that there have been three fights, in which the Afghans have been worsted ; that, after the last battle, Ukhbar Khan, in his retreat, was fired at by an Afghan, and wounded in the body and arms. Further accounts regarding the sirdar's wound state, that it was purely accidental. A favourite pesh khedmut, who had accompanied Ukhbar to Bokhara, and been with him in all his changes of fortune, was assisting him to dismount from his horse, when some part of his dress catching upon his fire-arms, they went off, and the sirdar was wounded through the arm and lungs. One account states, that the unfortunate man was instantly cut to pieces ; another, that he was burned alive ; and that to the last he took his oath on the Koran, that the

act was an accident. There is nothing too brutal or savage for Ukhbar to accomplish; he is known to have had a man flayed alive in his presence, commencing at the feet, and continuing upwards, until the sufferer was relieved by death. April 1st. A famous hoax went round, that a letter had come from Macgregor, that government were going to ransom us from Mohammed Shah Khan for three lakhs of rupees, and that we were to leave Buddeabad on Wednesday; that sultan Jan had been defeated in the Khyber, and that Ukhbar Khan had fled to Kaubul. Sale's letter gives no intelligence of a public nature; but as he proposes getting more shoes made to send to me, it does not look as if he expected us to leave this country soon. April 6th. Dost Mohammed Khan has returned from Kaubul, whither the sirdar sent him on business: he reports that Shah Shujah left Kaubul to proceed to Bگرامee, where his tents were pitched; but that he had not got further than the *musjeed* (mosque) in front of the Balla Hissar gate, when he was assailed in his palkee by the son of Zeman Khan, and immediately cut to pieces. Our force is reported to have arrived at Jellalabad. Our guards are all on the alert. Our broken towers are manned, and thirteen men added to our guard. At length the captives were to be travellers again. 'April 10th. We were hurried from daybreak to get ready. Mohammed Shah Khan has taken away all lady Macnaghten's jewels, to the value of above a lakh of rupees; and her shawls, valued at between 30,000 and 40,000 rupees. My chest of drawers he took possession of with great glee. I left some rubbish in them, and some small bottles, that were useless to me. I hope the Afghans will try their contents as medicine, and find them efficacious: one bottle contained nitric acid, another a strong solution of lunar caustic! We did not start till past noon, and then did not take the

road we expected, leading to Tighree, but an upper one to the right, and were told we were going to Tagow. April 11th. We went to Ali Kund, a rather long march, and found the sirdar there, seated in his *nalkée*, and looking very ill (from his recent wounds). He was particular in bowing to us all, making every demonstration of civility. Three tents were pitched for us on a pretty and green spot. The valley was beautiful under cultivation; and to us doubly so, from not having seen a blade of grass for so long a time. As we marched through the valley, we saw the effects of the late earthquake: not a fort was entire, very few habitable; and most of them masses of ruins. April 12th. We left the Adanek Beeduck pass to our left, and travelled up and down a number of very difficult mountain-passes. Mohammed Ukhbar passed us, bowed, and smiled,—'He can smile, and smile, and be a villain.' April 13th. Made a march of about twelve miles: the country sterile and rocky; the road rather better than yesterday; only one very awkward ascent, when all the ladies got out of their *kujavas*. I always ride; and have my own saddle; but some of the ladies are obliged to ride gentleman-fashion, sitting on their beddings, instead of saddles. I saw plenty of *amaryllis* in bloom; as also of the Persian iris, the orris of the druggists, which quite scented the air with a perfume resembling that of mingled violets and wallflowers. April 24th. The general (Elphinstone) died last night, and his remains are to be sent to Jellalabad. May 2d. In a conference with Pottinger, Troup, and many other English and Afghans, Ukhbar Khan became greatly excited. He said, that on the religious cry being raised, he killed the envoy, he destroyed our army—(like the boastful Coriolanus—'alone he did it!')—and now that he has drawn down the vengeance of the British upon him, the rest are deserting him: that he has kept his feelings pent up

within his own breast, until they have preyed upon his vitals; and that were he in power now, he would exterminate every one of the recreant Moslims who have deserted him, and left him to obloquy. May 7th. We have this day seen the general order with colonel Palmer's capitulation at Ghuzni; and dreadful was the tale that shortly followed. A Ghazee shot an officer, another shot the Ghazee; a fight ensued; the whole of our troops were cut up; exertions were made to save the officers—but every sipahee fell. The man who took the general's body to Jellalabad has returned. He seems highly pleased with the present he has received of 200 rupees, and it appears to have had a good effect; for he reports in glowing terms on the grand turn-out for the funeral, the ~~shots~~ ^{salutes} fired on the occasion, and the magnificent appearance of our troops.' On May 23d, the ladies and other captives were started off towards Kaubul, that is, back again, and on the next day were near enough to hear the firing in that city consequent on Ukhbar Khan's attempt to take the Balla Hissar, then occupied by Futtah Jung. 'May 25th. The tables were turned last night; for a sally was made from the Balla Hissar, and Ukhbar Khan was, they say, nearly caught.' He escaped to a fort near the shah's camp, behind Seal Sung, whence the females were removed; and lady Sale says that her party instantly got excellent quarters therein. The sirdar now told them that he should retire to Kohistan when the British troops came up, and that he should ultimately offer to take his father's place as a prisoner at Loodianah, with a proviso that the Dost should be let loose. 'June 26th. Colonel Stoddart and captain Arthur Conolly are prisoners at Bokhara. The latter had been enthusiastically employed in endeavouring to effect the release of the slaves in Kokan. The king of Bokhara conquered the chief of that country; and placed Conolly in confinement at Bokhara.

He and his fellow-prisoner, by the last accounts, had been 126 days confined in a dungeon underground, without light (more recent accounts say at the bottom of a dry well): they had never changed their clothes, nor washed; and their food was let down to them once in four or five days. A native, who had compassion on them, received a message through the person who took their food to them; and through him Conolly has communicated with his family here; who alas! are now powerless to assist him. (Both have been since murdered at Bokhara.) July 5th. The wuzeer (visir) Ukhbar Khan went to reside in the Balla Hissar. Troup, who left us, had to follow him there with Pottinger. July 18th. The wuzeer (Ukhbar) and the Sirdar-i-Sirdaran, Sultan Jan, Mohammed Shah Khan, &c, paid a visit here, and sat in the garden, which was quickly despoiled of its fruit. July 24th. Mrs. Sturt presented me with a granddaughter, another female captive. July 31st. Had Skinner lived, he would have thrown more light than any other person upon the late events; as he was the bearer of the messages, more especially of the one sent on the night before the envoy's death. It is as nearly certain as such an event can be, that poor Skinner, who was evidently a dupe to Ukhbar, was put to death by his orders. At Jugdaluk, after the general, the brigadier, and Johnson, were in the sirdar's power, major Thain went to the other officers and said: 'I fear there is treachery: poor Skinner has been shot; and had the object of the Afghan only been to kill a Peringhee, he would not have passed me to shoot him.' There can be little doubt that the sirdar was anxious to put out of the way one who could give such fearful evidence against him. August 19th. Futtah Jung (the new shah) escaped (from the Balla Hissar) through a hole made in the roof; from whence he let himself down by a rope. The wuzeer says

he is gone to Tagow, but the general opinion is that he is gone to Jellabad. Troup went to see the wuzzer to-day; who told him he purposes sending for him and Pottinger, to stay with him in the Balla Hissar. Ukhbar has written to lord Ellenborough, to say he will only treat with him; and that he will not have any thing to do with general Pollock who is 'a fool!' This is complimentary. August 23rd. The prisoners from Ghuzni arrived quite unexpectedly: colonel Palmer, captains Burnett, (54th), Harris, Nicholson, Poelt, Alstan, Williams, Crawford and Thompson. Ukhbar says he will send us away in three or four days either to Bamecan, Zoomut, or Soorkhab, twenty miles off, on the border of the Loghur country. At length the captives were started off, as related in our history, lady Sale still in the best of spirits. At Bamecan, they refused to take the party into the fort (Ukhbar Khan's cause being evidently on the decline); and the captives encamped in the neighbourhood, till a bargain was made for a fort formerly occupied by Dr. Lord. 'September 11th. This morning early, captain Lawrence came to ask if we would allow a conference to take place in our room, as being the most private place. We assented. Saleh Mohammed Khan, the Syud Morteza Khan, major Pottinger, captains Lawrence, Johnson, Mackenzie, and Webb, assembled; and our bed, spread on the floor, formed the divan. Here, in the course of an hour, all was settled. The gentlemen present signed their names to the paper; in which we promised to give Saleh 20,000 rupees, and to insure him 1000 rupees a month for life; and that if the government did not extricate us from this difficulty, we would be answerable for the money. Thus they held the promise of five British officers as sacred. In heading the paper, they insisted that we should do so in the name of Christ; as rendering it perfectly binding (how fine a contrast to their

want of reliance on their own solemn promises, one to the other, in the name of the prophet!) Saleh Mohammed declared to us, that he had received orders to remove us further: (to Khooloom), and to set out that night; also, that he had another letter from Ukhbar, ordering all who were not able to march, to be put to death. He seems anxious that we shall not receive any news from others; and had his two drummers severely flogged for telling us that the Kuzzilbashes, with Kahn Shireen Khan, had risen against Ukhbar, and that the latter had fled to the Kohistan. September 12th. Saleh Mohammed Khan hoisted the standard of defiance on the walls—white with a crimson edge and a green fringe. An offer being made by Kurrim Bey, to exchange the fort in which the now almost fugitive captives were located for his own, general Shelton and colonel Palmer were the only parties against the measure. 'As the latter (says her ladyship) has already been tortured at Ghuzni, he possibly fears a repetition of barbarity, should we not succeed. The former says, we are precipitating matters with Ukhbar; whom he considers as our friend.' The captives were, at two o'clock in the morning of the 17th, (while encamped beyond Killa Topchee) aroused by the arrival of a horseman, with the cheering intelligence that sir Richmond Shakespear was on the way, with 600 Kuzzilbashes, to their aid. 'We marched therefore (continues her ladyship) eleven miles to the forts at the foot of the Kaloo pass; again admiring the silvery serpentine stream, and the haycocks near it. We arrived at our ground at mid-day, and were sitting under the walls of one of the forts, sheltering ourselves from the sun until the arrival of our tents, when, at three o'clock, sir Richmond arrived, and was received, with one exception, with heartfelt pleasure. That one, general Shelton, should not forget the honour due to his rank as the senior military man; and was

much offended at sir Richmond not having called on him first, and reported his arrival in due form.' It is surprising that, at such a moment, and after such fearful experiences and trials, the petty feeling here noticed *could* subsist in the breast of a British officer: no omission of punctilio on the part of an inferior could really affect the superior's standing: but the still more joyful intelligence received on the 19th by lady Sale, that her gallant husband himself was approaching, had its more natural effect on a more softened heart. 'It is impossible (continues her ladyship) to express our feelings on Sale's approach: to my daughter and myself, happiness so long delayed, as to be almost unexpected, was actually painful, and accompanied by a choking sensation, which *could* not obtain the relief of tears.' We recommend our readers to peruse the journal itself for the rest, satisfied they will be highly gratified by its details.

We will now give (very little abbreviated) the concise journal of captain Johnson, of the 26th Bengal native infantry, one of the Kaubul captives; and, as is justly observed by the editor of the 'Bombay Times,' in reference to it, 'we have nowhere observed a narrative of events any thing like so copious, so continuous, or so clear as that now published.' We must always be guarded as to the weight to be attached to the innumerable statements of individuals by letter or otherwise found in the newspapers, connected with so remarkable a war as the Afghanistan one; and the only sources of information, whence to compose a connected and authentic history, must be sought in the acknowledged diaries, &c., of such as saw and knew what passed, of those who could in fact say, as of old, 'quorum pars magna fuimus.'

January 6th, 1842. Agreeably to yesterday's orders, we were this day to start for Jellalabad. The force consists of about 3500 fighting men,

and 14,000 camp-followers. By eight A.M. the greater part of the baggage was laden. As there was only one gateway on the face of the cantonments from which the exit of the troops was to be made, a portion of the rampart had been thrown down, so as to form a bridge over the ditch. The day was beautifully clear and frosty; snow nearly one foot deep on the ground. Although terms had been entered into with the sirdars for our safe escort, it was fully expected that we should have to fight our way out of the cantonments, as the populace would be so eager for its plunder. To our amazement, however, the advanced party, with which I was, went out without the slightest molestation; nor were more than from fifty to 100 Afghans collected at the gateway, to see our departure—and not a man was to be seen on the walls of any of the surrounding forts. The whole of our valuable magazines, consisting of arms, accoutrements, and ammunition, worth eighty lakhs, was plundered. We started at half-past nine: our progress very slow for the first mile—the distance was not accomplished under two hours and a half, owing to want of preparations beforehand. There was only one, and that a very narrow bridge over the nullah (not above eight feet broad, but deep) within 150 yards of cantonments, and the gun-carriages, with which a bridge was to be formed over the Kaubul river, about a quarter of a mile from the gateway, were with difficulty drawn by the bullocks through the snow. This delay and want of preparation beforehand were the origin of this day's misfortunes, which involved the loss of more than half the baggage of the force. After having been cooped up in cantonments for the last two months and five days, during which time we had lost in several engagements a great portion of our officers and men—and the latter had also suffered very severely from the want of the necessary food, and overwork—great was

the delight of our sepoys at the prospect of being freed from so inclement a climate as is (to them) Kaubul at this season; and the more especially as the firewood that had been laid in for the winter's consumption was already expended, and almost the whole of the fruit trees in cantonments had been cut and burned. Scarcely had we gone a mile, ere an order was brought to us that we were to return to cantonments, as Mohammed Zeman Khan had written to say the sirdars were not ready to accompany us;—to our delight, however, we shortly got another order to proceed onward, and lost no time in doing so. It was originally the general's intention to halt at Bagrama close to the Logur river, and about five miles from Kaubul; but the whole country being a swamp, we went on about a mile farther, and halted at about four p.m. At dusk scarcely any baggage up—luckily I had a small paul, which was pitched after clearing away the snow. The evening and night intensely cold,—no food for man or beast procurable, except a very limited quantity of bhoosa.

'January 7th. From the commencement of the siege the troops have been almost invariably on duty day and night. Several men frozen to death during the night, among whom was Mr. conductor Macgregor. The rearguard did not arrive in our bivouac till two this morning, having left cantonments at sunset yesterday; previous to their quitting which, the Afghans had entered there, and set fire to all the public and private buildings, after plundering them of what they required. The whole of the valuable magazine plundered by the mob, and gun-carriages burnt for the sake of the iron. Some fighting between the enemy and our sepoys took place, about fifty of the 54th killed and wounded, also cornet Handyman of the 5th cavalry killed. A great deal of baggage and public property abandoned in cantonments or lost on the road, among which

two horse artillery six-pounders. Officers of the rearguard report that the road is strewn with baggage; and numbers of men, women, and children have been already obliged to lay behind from being benumbed with cold, and whose fate will be either slavery or death. My bearer has lost the whole of my bedding. Captain Boyd's (commissariat officer) office records, including accounts to the amount of several lakhs of rupees, have been lost. No camp equipage, with the exception of two or three small tents being up: the whole of our troops bivouacked all night in the snow, without a particle of wood to light a fire. No encamping ground being marked out, the regiments, as they arrived, knew not where to go, and the whole scene was one of confusion. At about half-past seven the advance guard moved off—no order given—no bugle sounded. It had much difficulty in forcing its way ahead of the baggage and camp-followers, all of whom had already proceeded onward: among the latter are several sepoys; discipline is at an end. The whole of the baggage was not off the ground, ere the enemy appeared, and plundered what they could lay hands on. As the mountain train, consisting of three three-pounders, and dragged by yabooks and mules, was passing a small fort, close to ambush ground, a party of Afghans sallied out and captured the whole. Scarcely any resistance was offered: the syces immediately absconded. As the troops advanced on their road, the enemy increased considerably on both flanks, and greatly annoyed the centre and rear columns. Before leaving Kaubul, it was generally believed to be the general's intention to proceed the first day to Khoord Kaubul, and the second to Tezeen, which could easily have been accomplished had proper arrangements for leaving cantonments been made beforehand, as the distance from Kaubul to Tezeen is only about thirty miles. Had this been effected, how different would have been the fate of

the Kaubul army! we should only have been one night and one day and a half in the snow, and should have escaped our enemy, who the first day was not ready to follow us. It had been the general's intention to proceed through the Khoord Kaubul pass to Khoord Kaubul; and as it was not above one P. M. when the advance arrived at Boodkhak, having only come about five miles, it was with no slight degree of sorrow we got the order to halt; thereby losing one more day, (we left Kaubul with only 5½ days' rations to take us to Jellalabad, and no forage for cattle, with no prospects of getting any,) and subjecting our unfortunate troops, already nearly paralyzed with cold, to another night of the snow, and with no shelter from this inclement region. On arriving at Boodkhak, the enemy had very greatly increased around our position, and we heard that Mohammed Ukhbar Khan was with them. Scarcely any baggage of men or officers remaining: I still had my paul up, and although of the smallest description, it gave covering to nine of us for the night. During the march we were obliged to spike and abandon another six-pounder, the horses not having strength sufficient to drag it on. We have remaining two horse-artillery guns—left with scarcely any ammunition. No ground again marked out for the troops—the whole is one mass of confusion. Three-fourths of the sepoy are mixed up with the camp-followers, and know not where to find the head-quarters of their corps. Snow one foot deep—no provisions for man or beast procurable—and the people getting water from the river close at hand are fired upon. Numbers of individuals, benumbed with cold, have dropped on the road, to be massacred by the enemy.

January 8th. No orders given yesterday for the march. The scene of confusion at sunrise was fearful—the force perfectly disorganized—almost every man appears paralyzed with cold, so as to be scarcely able to

hold his musket or move a step. Some of the enemy having appeared in the rear of the bivouac, the whole of the camp-followers rushed to the front; every man, woman, and child laying hold of all cattle that fell to their hands, whether public or private. The ground is strewn with ammunition, and property of various kinds. The enemy soon assembled in great numbers—had they made a dash amongst us, we could have offered no resistance, and every one of us would have been slaughtered. After very great exertions on the part of the commanding officers, portions of their corps were brought together. The 44th queen's, headed by major Thain, aide-de-camp to general Elphinstone, drove the enemy off to a short distance; and took up a position on a commanding height. The general, and major Pottinger (political agent) entered into communication with Mohammed Ukhbar Khan; the latter agreed to protect the troops, on condition of major Pottinger, late political agent at Charekar, captain Laurence, military secretary to the envoy and minister, and captain M'Kenzie, assistant to ditto, going over to him as hostages for general Sale's evacuation of Jellalabad; but that the troops should not proceed farther than Tezeen, until information should be received of the general's mind. This was agreed to, and the three officers went over to the sirdar. We commenced our march at about midday; the 5th native infantry in front: we had not proceeded half a mile when we were heavily fired upon from the heights at the entrance of the pass, and which increased as we advanced, so that we had to run the gauntlet the whole length of this fearful defile, a distance of about five miles. The advance, although they suffered considerably, was, by comparison with the rear, very fortunate. Here the scene of slaughter was dreadful; all baggage was abandoned; the enemy not only poured in a murderous fire from every rock and cave in the heights

on each side, but descended into the pass, sword in hand, and slew man, woman, and child. The whole road, for a space of five miles, was covered with dead and dying; the 37th native infantry lost more than half its men, and other corps in proportion. Even those who remained could scarcely move or hold a musket, from their feet and hands being frost-bitten; and to add to our miseries, snow began to fall on our arrival at Khoord Kaubul. No provisions procurable—snow deeper than at Boodkhak—another night in the snow without shelter, my only covering was lost during the march; no ground marked out for the troops—scene of confusion same as on two preceding days. By great luck, my only two boxes that I brought from Kaubul, and which contained my treasure (about 1000 rupees), and office records for the past two months, are still saved. The few clothes I have are in a pair of saddle-bags, which I carried behind me on my own horse. My eyes at Boodkhak were so much affected by the glare of the snow, that I could scarcely see. Another horse-artillery gun abandoned in the pass; we have now but one remaining. On leaving Kaubul, each sepoy had forty rounds of musket ammunition in pouch, and about sixty camel-loads per regiment, with one hundred spare loads. We have not at present, for the whole force, three camel-loads in box; and numbers of sepoys have not a single cartridge in pouch.

‘Jan. 9. Before sunrise, the same confusion as yesterday. Without any order given, or bugle being sounded, the camp-followers, among whom were three-fourths of our fighting men, had pushed on in advance; as many of them as could, had appropriated to themselves all the public yaboos and camels—on which they were mounted; a portion of the troops had also moved off; and gone perhaps a mile, when the whole were remanded back to their former ground, and a halt for the day ordered. More than one-half of the force is now frost-

bitten and wounded: most of the men can scarcely put a foot to the ground. This is the fourth day that our cattle have had no food, and our men are starved with cold and hunger. Reports prevalent in camp that the irregular cavalry and minister's escort were about to desert to Mohammed Ukhbar Khan; as also that the Afghans were tampering with our sepoys to leave their European officers and return to Kaubul. Our present position being one of imminent peril, a proposition was made to the sirdar to permit the ladies and their families to go over to him for protection: to this he assented; and they accordingly proceeded under escort, at about midday, to a fort about a cos distant, in which Mohammed Ukhbar had taken up his temporary abode. Immediately after their departure, Anderson's horse, with exception of about eighty men, went over in a body to the sirdar; and as they shortly afterwards made their appearance in company with a body of Afghan horse, at about a mile from our bivouac, an idea was entertained that they intended attacking us: all was consternation; several of our infantry sepoys had also disappeared during the day, also numbers of our camp-followers. A message was sent to Mohammed Ukhbar regarding the desertion of our troops, and a hope expressed that he would not encourage it; and he sent one of his chiefs (Khoda Bux Khan) to explain, that any of our men deserting from us, and going over to him, would be shot. Our few troops had already been paraded to repel the supposed attack above alluded to, which, however, did not take place. The message of the sirdar was explained to all the men; and at the time of doing so, a mission chuprassee was observed in the act of deserting: he was immediately seized, and as instantly shot dead. My own servants, too, I suppose, thought that my last hour had come, for my trunk being open for a minute, my sweeper, who was by, made a rush at my bag

of rupees. I laid hold of him, tied him both hand and foot, and requested the provost sergeant, who was luckily by, to give him 100 lashes with his cat-o-nine-tails on his bare back. My assistant (lieutenant Mackay) was sent over in the evening to the sirdar, for the purpose of taking a letter for general Sale at Jellalabad, to evacuate his position. The letter was written by major Pottinger, political agent. Captain Sturt, yesterday wounded, was this day buried. We have no means of carrying on the sick, as all our dooly-bearers deserted or were murdered the first day. The whole of our camels and yaboos have been either seized by the enemy, or by our camp-followers, and even were they forthcoming we have not a man to look after them. The greatest confusion prevailed all day, and anxiety and suspense for our ultimate fate intense. Every man among us thought, that ere many hours should pass, he was doomed to die either by cold, hunger, or the sword of our enemies; for if attacked, although we might for a short time hold out, nothing could eventually save us. After our return to camp in the morning, commanding officers of regiments managed to collect on an average sixty files per corps; but numbers of these could with difficulty hold a musket. Several men were frozen to death during the night. No dependance to be placed on the promises of the sirdar. My eyes had become so inflamed from the reflection from the snow, that I was nearly blind, and the pain was intense. Several officers were more or less affected; one or two quite blind.

Jan. 10. The same scene of confusion as yesterday. No sooner was it light than our camp-followers, with whom were mixed numbers of our sepoy and European soldiers, crowded to the front in one huge mass. Hundreds of poor wretches (men and women) who had not been fortunate enough to seize any animal to carry them, or, having done so, had been

dispossessed of them by others stronger than themselves, were left to die like dogs on the road, or to be butchered by the enemy: the sight was fearful. After much exertion, the advance, consisting of the remains of the 44th queen's, one only remaining six-pounder, and about fifty files of the 5th cavalry, managed to get ahead of the camp-followers. The Afghans were commencing, early as it was, to make their appearance on the hills. On our arrival (I was with the army at Tungee-taneekee, a very narrow gorge about ten feet broad, and two miles distant from our last ground) the height was taken in possession of by the enemy, who fired down incessantly upon us. The height was quite inaccessible from the road. The snow increasing in depth as we advanced, our progress was necessarily slow, and many a poor fellow was knocked over. After getting through the pass (not above fifty yards in length) we continued our march to Kubbur-i-Jubbur, where we halted till we should be joined by the rear. Latterly, we had not seen an Afghan except at a distance. Being always ready to catch at the least glimmering of hope, we trusted the worst of our march was over: our horror can, therefore, scarcely be imagined, when some stragglers from the rear came up, and informed us that they were the remnant of the rear column, almost every man of which had either been killed or wounded: among the latter was captain Hopkins, commanding 6th Shah's, who had had his arm broken by a musket-shot. We had now not a sepoy remaining of the whole Kaubul force. It appears that a desperate attack had been made by a body of Afghans, sword in hand: our men, being already paralyzed with cold and hunger, made no resistance or scarcely any, but threw away their arms and accoutrements, and fell a sacrifice to our barbarian foe. We all gave ourselves up for lost, every particle of baggage was gone, our small remnant

consisted of about seventy file of the queen's 44th, fifty of the fifth cavalry, and one six-pounder. Observing a body of cavalry in our rear, we were still determined to make one other effort for existence. The gun was brought into position, but before firing upon them it was deemed advisable to ascertain who the chief of the party was. Being informed it was Mohammed Ukhbar, captain Skinner (assistant commissary-general), by the direction of the general, went over under escort to him, to remonstrate on the attack on our troops, after a treaty had been entered into for our protection. His reply was, that he regretted he could not control the Ghilzies with his small body of horse—about 300,—but that as now the remnant of our troops was merely a few Europeans, he would guarantee their safety, and that of all the European officers, to Jellalabad, if the general would conduct them over unarmed—his motives for which, he said, were, that should they bring their arms with them, his own followers would be afraid of treachery. To this the general would not consent. Lieutenant Mackay returned with Skinner from the sirdar, as the road to Jellalabad was deemed unsafe for him to traverse it. We again commenced our fearful march, the remnant of the camp-followers, with several officers who had been wounded, going on ahead. After proceeding about five miles without seeing any enemy, we arrived (having come down a very steep and long descent) at the bed of the Tezeen nullah. Having no conveyance for the sick and wounded, we had been obliged to leave on the road all such as could not come on. On our arrival at the dip into the bed of the nullah, the scene was horrible. The ground was again covered with dead and dying, among whom were several officers, who, as before stated, had gone on ahead of the column, and, having been suddenly attacked were instantly massacred. We here observed the enemy crowd-

ing on the tops of the hills, from all directions, down the bed of the nullah, through which our route lay for about three miles. We continued our progress through one continued fire from the heights on both sides, until our arrival in Tezeen valley at about half-past four P. M. Our descent into the valley from the top of the Huft Khotul was, I should think, at least 2000 feet, ere we had got out of the region of snow. Here I should compute our troops and camp-followers at about 4000 individuals, having lost by one means or other since leaving Kaubul, four days ago, 13,000 people. About a quarter of an hour after our arrival, the sirdar and his party came into the valley, and proceeded to a fort higher up, belonging to Gool Mohammed Khan. A signal was made to some of his horsemen to approach us. Two came, and captain Skinner, by the general's desire, accompanied them to Mohammed Ukhbar, to devise some means of saving our now small party from destruction. All was intense anxiety till Skinner's return at dusk, when he brought back the same message as at Kubbur-i-Jubbur regarding the disarming of the Europeans. Again this was not acceded to. The general then decided, weak and famished as the troops were, and as there was no prospect of provisions being had at Tezeen, on again marching at seven P. M., and proceeding, if possible, through the Jugdulluck pass by eight or nine the next morning. In fact, in this consisted our only means of safety; for if intimation of our approach should reach Jugdulluck, the pass would be taken possession of, and the general's object defeated. As I was aware of a short cut across the mountains, I informed the general that Mohammed Ukhbar Khan and his party could, although they should leave several hours after us, be at Jugdulluck ready to oppose us. A message was sent to Mohammed Ukhbar, that we were going to march to Seh Baba, seven miles from Tezeen, and sometimes called Sukeya-

i-Orugur. The road from the latter to Tezeen lies down the bed of a nullah, with hills on either side. As the camp-followers had all along been the bane of our unfortunate force, we were in hopes that, by moving off quickly, we might manage to leave them behind; but no sooner had we started, than the whole of them that could move accompanied us. We left our only remaining gun behind. Dr. Cardew, who had been mortally wounded this day at the dip into the Tezeen nullah, was abandoned to his fate, and laid on the gun-carriage to await death, which was rapidly approaching. He was found dead next morning by Mohammed Ukhbar's people. The night was fine and moonlight. We reached Seh Baba at about midnight. At this place a few shots were fired upon us; and our rear being attacked, the whole of the queen's 44th, with exception of about nine files to form our advance, were ordered there, and thus the column remained till arrival at Jugdulluck—and our progress was again impeded, consequent on that evil which always attends our Hindustanee armies—camp-followers; who, so soon as a shot was fired in front, instantly fell back upon the rear, and *vice versa*. On passing Banckau, three miles from Seh Baba, where there is a clear stream of water, and several caves cut in the rock, we observed a number of people in the caves, with whom, as they did not molest us, we did not interfere: not so, however, with the rear, which had some volleys fired upon them. At daybreak the advance arrived at Kuttur Sung—(about seven miles from Seh Baba—at Kutter Sung itself are some streams of water—there is an encamping-ground, but very confined, and commanded by high hills all round)—and, halted about half a mile beyond, till the rearguard should reach us. This, however, did not come up for at least two hours afterwards, having been a good deal molested on the road. On our first arrival not a man was to be seen; but, ere long, several made their appearance on the hills around us, and continued every moment to increase. Unfortunately not a drop of water was procurable where we had halted, nor was any to be had till we should approach Jugdulluck. We had now been marching, or rather hunted like wild beasts, for twenty-four hours consecutively, and still had upwards of ten weary miles to trudge ere we could hope for the least repose. On being joined by the rear, we again continued our march,—the enemy, in small numbers, watching every opportunity to murder those who should stray from the column. On arrival at within two miles of Jugdulluck, the descent into the valley of which commences, we observed the hills on each side the road were occupied by the enemy, who, with their long juzails, fired upon us the whole way—and again the road was covered with dead and dying. We were so thick a mass, that every shot told on some part or other of our column. On arrival in the valley, we (the advance) took up a position on the first height we came to, near some ruined walls. As scarcely any Europeans of the advance now remained, and the enemy were increasing, the general called several officers (about twenty of us) to form line and show a front. We had scarcely done so, when my friend captain Grant, assistant-adjutant-general (afterwards killed at Gundamuck), who was next to me, received a ball through his cheek, which broke his jaw. I lifted him off his horse, and seated him on the ground. On the arrival of the rearguard, which was followed up by the enemy, the latter took possession of two heights close to our position. For security, we went within the ruined walls, our men almost maddened with hunger and thirst. Some snow was on the ground, which we greedily devoured; but, instead of quenching, it increased our thirst. A stream of clear pure water was running at the foot of, and within

150 paces off, our position; but no man could venture down without a certainty of being massacred. For about half an hour we had a respite from the fire of the enemy, who were watching our proceedings. I was desirous by the general to see if any bullocks or camels were procurable among the followers. I luckily found three of the former, which were instantly killed, served out to the Europeans, and as instantly devoured, although raw and still reeking with blood. A few horsemen being observed near at hand, a signal was made for one of them to approach. He did so, and was questioned as to what chief was present. He replied, 'Mohammed Ukhbar Khan.' A message was sent to the sirdar by the general, as to why we were again molested. A reply was brought back, that the chief wished to converse with Skinner, who then accompanied the messenger. This was at about half-past three p. m. We now fondly hoped further massacre would be stopped. Scarcely, however, had Skinner taken his departure, and we, who had been marching for the last thirty hours, had laid ourselves down on the ground, completely worn out by cold, fatigue, hunger, and thirst, than our persevering foe, not yet glutted with the blood of the thousands that had fallen, suddenly commenced firing volley after volley into the inclosure where we were resting. All was again confusion. There was one general rush outside the walls—men and cattle all huddled together—each urgently striving to screen himself from the murderous fire of the enemy. At this time, about twenty gallant soldiers of the queen's 44th made one simultaneous rush down our hill to drive the enemy off the heights occupied by them. In this they were most successful; for the latter, in the supposition that they would be followed by others, had taken flight ere our soldiers reached their position. In about a quarter of an hour, as our small party could not admit of any division, the

afore-mentioned soldiers were recalled. We again entered within our broken walls, and again instantly with our foes in their former position, dealing death among us. At about five o'clock, Skinner returned with a message, that the sirdar wished to see the general, brigadier Shelton, and myself, to a conference; and that, if we would go over, he would engage to put a stop to any further massacre, and give food to the troops; and on condition of brigadier Shelton and self remaining with him as hostages for general Sale's evacuation of Jelalabad, he would escort our small remaining party in safety. The general sent for me, and desired I would accompany him. Mohammed Shah Khan (father-in-law of the sirdar, and whose daughter is with the rest of Dost Mohammed Khan's family at Loodianah), one of the principal Ghilzie chiefs, came at dusk with an escort to receive us. We started in the confident hope that some arrangement might be effected by which to save the few remaining lives. We proceeded to the top of the valley for about two miles, and found the sirdar and his party bivouacking in the open air. Nothing could exceed the kind manner in which we were received by this chief; who, immediately on hearing that we were hungry (we had tasted no food for the last forty-eight hours) and thirsty, ordered a cloth to be spread on the ground where we were sitting; and a good pillau and other dishes, as also tea, soon made their appearance, around which we formed a circle; and having washed our hands, we all began to eat from the same dish. Our hunger, although great, was as nothing compared with our insatiable thirst; which for two days afterwards was not quenched. The party consisted of the sirdar; Mohammed Shah Khan; Abdool Ghyus Khan, son of Jubbar Khan, the brother of Dost Mohammed Khan; and a young lad of the name of Abdool Hukem Khan, nephew of the sirdar. For some time we were too busily engaged to

say much; but the attention of our host and his party was excessive. After dinner we all sat round a blazing fire, and talked on various subjects. By the general's desire, I begged of Mohammed Ukhbar that he would early in the morning forward provisions to the troops, and make arrangements for supplying them with water; both of which he faithfully promised to do so soon as it should be dawn. The general was also most anxious he should be permitted to return in the morning to his troops, and stated he would send brigadier Anquetil, should he require another officer in his stead. I also, by the general's wish, pointed out to the sirdar the stigma that among us would attach to him as commanding officer, by his remaining in a place of comparative security, while such imminent danger was pending over his troops. To this the sirdar would not consent. At about 11 p.m., promising he would early in the morning call together the chiefs of the pass, to make arrangements for our safe escort, he showed us into a small tent which he had had pitched for us. Worn out and fatigued as we were, we stretched ourselves on our cloaks on the ground, and were soon fast asleep.

Jan. 12. Arose by sunrise. The sirdar and his party were already up, and we met with the same civility as last night: two confidential servants of the chief were appointed to wait on us. We were warned against leaving our tents without one or other of them accompanying us, for fear of being maltreated or insulted by the Ghilzies, who were, early as it was, already flocking in to pay their respects to Mohammed Ukhbar. At about nine a.m., the chiefs of the pass, and of the country towards Soorkhab, arrived, when we all sat down to discuss matters. The chiefs were most bitter in their expressions of hatred towards us, and declared that nothing would satisfy them and their men but our extermination, and money they would not receive. The

sirdar, as far as words went, tried all in his power to conciliate them; and when all other arguments failed, put them in mind of his father and the whole of his family being in the power of the British government at Loodianah, and that vengeance would be taken by the latter in the event of mercy not being shown to us. Mohammed Shah Khan offered them 60,000 rupees, on condition of our not being molested. After some time they took their departure, to consult with their followers; and Mohammed Shah Khan mentioned to me that he feared the chiefs would not, without some great inducement, resist the temptation of plunder and murder that now offered itself; and wound up by asking if we would give them two lakhs of rupees, on condition of our being allowed a free passage. I mentioned this to general Elphinstone, obtained his consent, and made known the same to Mohammed Shah, who went away, having promised to return quickly. The general again begged of the sirdar to permit him to return to his troops, but without avail. I wrote early in the day to Skinner, by the general's desire, to beg he would come up to us. This letter reached him just after receiving a wound. A report was brought in that Skinner was wounded, but not dangerously. He died the same day of his wound: and government was deprived of the services of a very valuable officer, and many among us of a kind friend and intelligent companion. The sirdar expressed much sorrow. Until twelve o'clock, crowds of Ghilzies, with their respective chiefs, continued to pour in from the surrounding country, to make their salaam to Mohammed Ukhbar—to participate in the plunder of our unfortunate people, and to revel in the delight of massacring the Europeans. From their expressions of hatred towards the whole race of us (while conversing in Persian, which they sometimes did, until, from a hint of the sirdar, they began to talk in Poosh-too, which I did not understand).

they appeared to anticipate much more delight in cutting our throats than even in the expected booty. The sirdar, to all appearance—but possibly merely as a blind to his real feelings while sitting with me—endeavoured as much as possible to conciliate them. Their reply, in this instance, was, ‘When Burnes came into this country, was not your father intreated by us to kill him; as he would go back to Hindustan, and at some future day bring an army and take our country from us? He would not listen to our advice, and what is the consequence? Let us, now that we have the opportunity, take advantage of it, and kill these infidel dogs.’ At about twelve the sirdar left us, and went on the top of the hill in rear of our bivouac. We imagined he would shortly return, but he did not come down again till sunset. Our anxious inquiries as to when Mohammed Shah Khan would return, were always replied to—‘Immediately.’ The only consolation we had was the frequent assurance that provisions and water had been given to the troops. On its becoming dusk, the sirdar returned, and was followed shortly afterwards by Mohammed Shah Khan, bringing the pleasing intelligence of every thing having been finally and amicably arranged for the safeconduct of our men to Jellalabad. The sirdar said he would accompany us early in the morning. By the general’s request I wrote a note to brigadier Anquetil, to have the troops in readiness to march at eight o’clock. I had commenced a letter to general Sale, to evacuate Jellalabad (this was a part of the terms), when suddenly, and before my note to the brigadier had gone off, a great deal of musket-firing was heard down the valley, and in the direction of the troops, and a report was brought in, that the Europeans were moving off through the pass, followed by the Ghilzies. We were all in consternation. At first the sirdar suggested, and the general fully concurred in the same, that he

or three
 ever, changed his mind, and said how
 he feared our doing so would, instead of benefiting, greatly injure the party, by bringing after them the whole horde of Ghilzies that were then assembled in the valley. He promised to send on a confidential servant to Meer Ufzul Khan, at Gundamuck, twelve miles beyond Soorkhab, to afford them protection; and agreed to start with us at midnight, as, being mounted, we should overtake them before the break of day. When we were about to separate for the night, the sirdar again altered our time of departure till daybreak. Our remonstrances were of no avail, and we felt ourselves too completely in the power of our enemy to persist in what we knew we had not the means of enforcing. I must not omit to mention that Mohammed Ukhbar Khan told me in the morning, after Mohammed Shah Khan had gone to consult with the chiefs of the pass, that the latter were dogs, and no faith could be placed in them, and begged I would send for three or four of my most intimate friends, that their lives might be saved in the event of treachery to the troops. My reply was, that I would gladly do so could my request be acceded to; but that the commanding officer would never consent, and that the feelings of my friends would also be opposed to such a proceeding, at a time of so imminent peril to their comrades. The sirdar also proposed, that, in the event of the Ghilzies not acceding to our terms, he would himself, with his party of horsemen, proceed at least to the foot of the hill, where our troops were bivouacked; and, previous orders being given to the commanding-officer that they should be held ready, he would bring away in safety every European, by desiring each of his horsemen to take up a man behind him; that the Ghilzies would not fire upon the Europeans, for fear of hitting him or his men; but that he

could not allow a single Hindustanee to follow, as it was impossible for him to protect 2000 people (our computed number). I mentioned this to the general, but it was deemed impracticable, as from past experience we had seen how impossible it was to separate the non-combatants from the fighting men. Four or five times during the day we heard the report of musketry, which appeared in the direction of our troops; but were always told, on making inquiry, that all fighting had ceased.

‘Jan. 13. Up an hour before day-break. Snow had fallen during night; awoke the sirdar, and, to our sorrow, learnt he had again changed his mind, and that instead of following up our troops, we were to move down to the position lately occupied by them, to remain there during the day; and should the ladies and officers who remained behind at Khoord Kaubul arrive by the evening, we are to start to-morrow morning over the mountains, to the valley of Lughman (north of Jellalabad). To argue this point with Mohammed Uklbar Khan is useless, we are completely in his power,—he has his own private ends to obtain, and we must submit. At eight A. M., we mounted our horses, and in company with the sirdar and his party, rode down the pass, which bore fearful evidence to the struggle of last night. We passed some 200 dead bodies, among whom were several Europeans,—the whole stripped stark naked, and covered with large gaping wounds. As the day advanced, several poor wretches of Hindustanee camp-followers, who had escaped the massacre of last night, began to make their appearance from behind rocks within caves, where they had taken shelter, as well from the murderous knives of the Afghans as from the inclement climate. They had all been stripped of every thing they possessed, and scarcely a man could crawl even a few yards. The whole of my servants and chuprassees have been massacred, except two khudhutgars, who crawled up to me

during the day. The one has his feet and hands frostbitten, and a fearful sword-cut across his hand, and a musket-ball in his stomach; the other has his right arm cut completely through the bone,—and both without the slightest covering, and had not tasted food for five days. This is but a sample of those who have survived. About four P. M., Sooltan Jan arrived with the ladies and gentlemen who had remained at Khoord Kaubul, accompanied by lieutenant Melville, 54th, and Dr. Magrath, 37th, both of whom had been wounded between Khoord Kaubul and Tezeen, and had joined this party at the latter place. The former gentleman had been severely wounded in three places, not far from Khoord Kaubul, and fortunately fell in with Mohammed Uklbar Khan, who supplied him with a horse, bound up his wounds himself, and conducted him to the fort of Gool Mohammed Khan at Tezeen, where he remained till the arrival of the above party. A large party of cavalry (Afghan and Anderson’s horse, who deserted as before mentioned) accompanied Sultan Jan. Every attention which circumstances admitted of had been paid the ladies and gentlemen: nor had they met with the slightest annoyance on the road. Major Pottinger, and captains Lawrence and Mackenzie, made over as hostages at Boodkhak, have also arrived.

‘Jan 14. Started at about nine A. M. The sirdar, with whom were the general, brigadier Shelton, and self, bringing up the rear. Proceeded up the Udruk Budruk pass, leading through the mountains to Lughman. Halted at four P. M. on the banks of the Punjshuhur river, having come about twenty-two miles over the roughest road I ever saw. Some of the ascents and descents were fearful to look at, and seemed almost impracticable. The whole road was one continuation of rocks and stones, over which the camels with the greatest difficulty scrambled. At the commencement of the defile, and for some considerable distance, passed

200 or 300 of our poor miserable Hindustanees, who had escaped up this unfrequented road from the massacre of the 12th. They had not a rag to cover themselves, and all more or less frostbitten, wounded, or starving. The poor wretches had huddled together in thirties and forties, so as to impart to each other a little animal heat; as other warmth was denied them by the barren inhospitable wilderness around them. The wind was blowing bitterly cold at our bivouac. No shelter of any kind for the ladies of our party during the whole night. Happiness is comparative—and truly fortunate did general Elphinstone, brigadier Shelton, and myself, consider ourselves, when one of our Afghan attendants told us to accompany him inside of a wretched cow-shed. This, on our first entrance, was so blackened with a dense smoke from a good blazing fire in the centre of the hut, that we could see none of the objects around us, until we had stretched ourselves at length on the floor, and consequently out of the influence of the smoke; when we perceived our companions to be three or four half-starved Hindustanees who had accompanied our party. Our attendant wished to eject them, but we too truly sympathized with their sufferings to permit such an act of tyranny. We shortly afterwards got an invitation from Mohammed Ukhbar to join him and his party to dinner inside the fort. The room of our reception was not much better than that we left. We had, however, a capital dinner, some cups of good tea, and then a luxurious rest for the night; the room having been well heated by a blazing fire, and lots of smoke; with no outlet for either, except the door and a small hole in the roof.

Jan. 15. This morning a bitterly cold wind was blowing. We started at about seven A.M., crossed the Punshee river, which is exceedingly rapid,—so much so, that had it not been for the exertions of Mohammed Ukhbar and his chiefs, some cattle would have

been swept away by the stream. Both he and his chiefs were most attentive, in escorting in safety the ladies and their children, and wounded Europeans. At about three P.M. arrived at Tigree, a fortified town in the rich valley of Lughman, having come about twenty miles through a most barren inhospitable country, without a blade of grass or drop of water to be seen, until arrival in the valley close to Tigree. Our route lay along a tract of country very considerably higher than Lughman, with scarcely a footpath visible the whole way. Road very good for any kind of carriage. About two miles from Tigree is a celebrated place of pilgrimage, called 'Jubr-i-Lamek.' The sirdar desired general Elphinstone, brigadier Shelton, and self, to take up our quarters with him, while the ladies and other gentlemen were located in a separate house. A great number of Hindu bunneahs are living here.

'Jan. 16. Halted at Tigree.

'Jan. 17. Early in the morning, we were, to our surprise, told to prepare for a start higher up the valley, and further removal from Jellalabad, from which place Tigree is distant about thirty miles. All the hopes which we had hitherto entertained of being escorted to Jellalabad are now blighted; and we now see plainly that we are nothing more nor less than prisoners, until such time as general Sale shall evacuate Jellalabad, or Dost Mohammed Khan be permitted by our government to return to this country. Started at nine, and arrived at Buddeabad, almost at the top of the valley, and close to the first range of hills towards Kafiristan.

'The night following the evening on which the general, brigadier Shelton, and self, left the troops for the purpose of proceeding to the sirdar's bivouac, was passed in comparative quiet. Our men were so worn out with fatigue and thirst, that it was scarcely possible for them to take their tour of sentry—the only incident that broke the stillness of the night was an occasional shot, or the

cry of the sentry that the enemy were walking off with the horses that strayed from their pickets. No sooner was it, however, dawn, on the 12th, than the bivouac was again surrounded by Ghilzies, who increased as the day advanced. The hills were again covered with them, and they with their juzails kept up an incessant fire on our men, killing and wounding hundreds. At about nine A. M., as almost all the officers of her majesty's 44th had been either wounded or killed, captain Bygrave (paymaster to the army of the Indus) gallantly volunteered his services, with a small party of that regiment, to charge and drive off the enemy. They succeeded to admiration; but being obliged to return to their former position, the heights were again taken possession of. It was about this time that major Thain and captain Skinner observed two men coming in the direction of the bivouac. They went out to meet them, the latter thinking they might have been sent by the sirdar to himself. The men approached close to the officers—took no notice of major Thain; but one of them took a deliberate aim at captain Skinner with a pistol, and broke his jaw. He died in three or four hours afterwards. At one P. M., major Thain and lieutenant Wade of the 44th queen's, headed another party of that corps to again charge the enemy, who had now increased to some thousands. A second time were the latter compelled to run; but, in this affair, major Thain was wounded in the face, and lieutenant Wade killed. The day at length passed away. Our troops had now been without food for three days, and without water for forty hours. None of the former had been sent to them as promised to me by the sirdar; nor, although so near to them, could a man approach the stream to drink. Numbers of our men had fallen since sunrise. With the exception of one note from myself, no information of the general or brigadier had been received. By remaining longer in their

present position, death was inevitable. Brigadier Anquetil commanding, towards the evening determined therefore upon continuing the retreat. As it became dusk, the Europeans were silently warned to be ready. At about seven P. M., they descended the hill, the camp-followers again being on the alert to follow them. They had not proceeded many yards, when, with savage yells, the Ghilzies were in the midst of them. The night being dark, it was impossible to distinguish friends from foes. Almost all the camp-followers were cut up without resistance. To proceed onward, regardless of the fate of those who fell, whether dead or dying, was the only chance of escape left to the survivors. Some officers who had been wounded, and unable to come on, had been left at the last ground—(before morning they were all dead); others had lost their horses and were obliged to walk. Our troops at length got to the top of the pass, where a barrier of trees and bushes had been formed across the road. The Ghilzies were lying in wait for the result among the hills. This was soon apparent. The greatest confusion ensued—again were the horrible yells of the enemy heard, and again were more victims added to those that had already fallen. Onward was still the word—about a mile farther a second barrier was encountered, and the results similar to those of the former,—the enemy still pursuing, in increased numbers, close upon the rear. When near Soorkhab, some officers, seeing all chance of escape over, pushed on by themselves for Jellalabad; all of whom, with the exception of Dr. Brydon, were speedily killed. These (among whom was captain Hopkins of the 6th Shah's) had reached within sight of Jellalabad, when attacked and massacred. The remnant of the soldiers and officers decreased as they advanced. At about daybreak they arrived at Gundamuck, the computed number being about twenty officers, and forty-five

European soldiers, and no Hindustanees. Here was a fresh body of the enemy to be encountered. Every hut in the country had poured forth its inhabitants to murder and plunder. Our men had not above one or two rounds of ammunition left. They still, though so small a band, were determined never to surrender to their enemies while a spark of life remained. Their numbers were as one to 100, most of them were already wounded. A messenger from the chief of the district arrived and inquired for the senior officer. This was major Griffiths of the 37th N. I., who accompanied the messenger, in the hope of persuading him to exert his influence to save the lives of the small but gallant band of Europeans that still remained. Ere, however, the major had reached the chief, the enemy had called upon the Europeans to surrender and give up their arms. They refused to do so. An attempt was then made by a few to take the latter by force. This was resisted: blows were exchanged. A contest between the two parties was thus brought on. A rush was made by the infuriated and savage mob. Further resistance was of no avail; and, in the space of five minutes, every man, with the exception of captain Souther of the queen's 44th, who had wrapped round him his regimental colours, and five soldiers taken prisoners, was massacred.—Thus perished, after unheard-of sufferings, the remnant of an army that had left Kaubul seven days previously, composed of 3500 fighting men, and 14,000 camp-followers.

'H. JOHNSON.'

The circumstances which led to colonel Palmer's surrender of Ghuzni, are thus related by lieutenant Crawford, to whom we are indebted for the account of the captivity and sufferings to which the unavoidable measure led. This statement, added to the one at p. 639, and preceding it in order of time, furnishes us with all that happened to the pent-up garrison at Ghuzni, from the moment

of the insurrection, Nov. 2, 1841, to the release of the prisoners, Sept. 21, 1842. The lieutenant had had to fight his way from Kandahar (which he left Oct. 30, three days before the insurrection began) to Ghuzni, having under his charge three state-prisoners and seven hostages. His proper destination from Kandahar was Kaubul; but finding the country in arms as he approached that capital, he turned off to Ghuzni, and reached it with extreme difficulty, Nov. 8.

'After following and harassing us for miles (says lieutenant Crawford), the enemy drew off when we got near Ghuzni, and I reached that place about ten A.M. on the 8th, with the loss of all my baggage and prisoners, and fifteen men and twenty horses killed, and several wounded, out of my little party. Every day now brought us bad accounts from Kaubul; and the infatuation that appears to have seized the chief authorities there, not only hurried them on to ruin at the capital, but also paralyzed us at Ghuzni. Can you imagine that the necessary repairs and alterations in the citadel were not sanctioned, nor was Palmer permitted to lay in provisions? At the eleventh hour the colonel took the responsibility upon himself and set to work; but most invaluable time had been suffered to pass unimproved; and when the enemy made their appearance under our walls, they found us but ill prepared for a siege, especially when it was not man alone we had to combat with, but the rigours of a winter as intense as that of Canada. The enemy and the snow made their appearance together: on the 20th of November the town was surrounded with the one, and the ground covered with the other; but in a week afterwards the insurgents broke up their investment of the place, on a report of M'Laren's brigade advancing to our relief. This permitted our destroying the villages and buildings within musket-shot of the walls, and also afforded

us a week's skating on the ditch ; but on the 7th December the enemy returned in increased numbers, and we were then closely confined to the walls. The necessity and advantage of turning the inhabitants out of the town was not lost sight of ; but unfortunately for us, an idea had got abroad that the townspeople were strongly attached to us, and that the sending out so many poor people to perish in the snow was an act of cruelty too great to be dreamt of. The consequence was, that the townspeople entered into a correspondence with their countrymen on the outside ; and on the night of the 16th of December, having dug a hole through the town, they admitted their friends, who poured in by thousands, and compelled us, after fighting all that night and the next day, to retire into the citadel. It so happened that from this day the winter set in with increased severity, and its effects soon told fearfully upon the men—the whole garrison, officers and men, were told off into three watches, one of which was constantly on duty, so that every one in the place was eight hours on duty out of the twenty-four ; and you may imagine that such constant work and exposure to the intense cold, very soon rendered the sepoy's useless. The snow lay deep, very deep, and often in the course of a single night would fall to the depth of a couple of feet ! The thermometer sank to *ten, twelve, and even fourteen degrees below zero* ! and to such weather were the natives of India exposed day and night, with no prospect of relief, and with no comforts to enable them to support their sufferings.—We were reduced to half-rations of bad flour and raw grain, on alternate days ; and a seer of wood per man each day was all that could be allowed either for cooking or warmth. The sepoy's, constantly soaked and unable to dry themselves, got sickly, and the hospital was crowded with men whose feet had been ulcerated from frost-bites. I do think, that if the enemy

had had pluck enough to have made a rush upon us, they could at any time, after Christmas-day, have carried the works with very little difficulty : as it was, however, they contented themselves with keeping up a smart fire with their rifles, and not a man could show his head above the walls for a moment. Up to the 15th of January this work continued, and we lost three or four men daily, from the fire of their marksmen ; but on the day mentioned, some sort of a truce was entered into, and active hostilities ceased, it being understood we were to evacuate the place on the arrival of Shumsoodeen Khan. This worthy did not arrive till the middle of the following month, and even then the colonel managed to keep him in play till the beginning of March ; but at last he and his chiefs would stand it no longer, and said that if we did not give up the place immediately, they would recommence hostilities ; and we, being utterly helpless, having no water in the citadel, and the snow (on which we had depended for a supply) having all vanished, our provisions being exhausted, and there being no prospect of the arrival of succour, had no resource but to make the best terms we could, and trust to Providence that the enemy would abide by them. On the 6th of March we marched out from the citadel, under a treaty signed and solemnly sworn to by all the chiefs, that we should be escorted in safety and honour to Peshawur, with our colours, arms, and baggage, and fifty rounds of ammunition per man. There was still some snow in the passes between Ghuzni and Kaubul ; and till that should melt, and the necessary carriage could be procured for us, we were quartered in a portion of the town immediately below the citadel. Scarcely had we entered our new abode, when our enemies flung off the mask, and showed how much they valued oaths made to infidels. At noon on the 7th, whilst nearly every man of ours was cooking, and we

were totally unprepared for an outbreak, the Ghazees rushed upon our lines, and succeeded in carrying the houses in which my squadron had been placed. I was in the next house, with Burnett of the 54th, and Nicholson of the 27th, there being no decent room for me in my own proper quarters. On hearing the uproar, I ran to the roof to see what was the matter, and finding what had taken place among my men, and that balls were flying thick, I called up Burnett. He had scarcely joined me, when he was struck down by a rifle-ball, which knocked his eye out; and as he was then rendered *hors de combat*, I assumed command of the two companies of the 27th that had been under him, and Nicholson and myself proceeded to defend ourselves as well as circumstances would permit. We were on the left of the mass of houses occupied by our troops, and the first and sharpest attacks were directed at us: the enemy fired our house; and gradually, as room after room caught fire, we were forced to retreat to the others; till at last, by midnight of the 9th, our house was nearly burnt in halves. We were exhausted with hunger and thirst, having had nothing to eat or drink since the morning of the 7th; our ammunition was expended, the place was filled with dead and dying men, and our position was no longer tenable; but the only entrance, in front of the house, was surrounded by the enemy, and we scarcely knew how to get out and endeavour to join colonel Palmer. At last we dug a way through the wall of the back of the house; we had only bayonets to work with, and it cost us much labour to make a hole sufficiently large to admit of one man at a time dropping from it into the street below; but we were fortunate enough to get clear out of our ruined quarters in this way, and join the colonel, unperceived by the savages round us. As soon as day broke on the 9th, they occupied our abandoned post, and shortly afterwards attacked and carried the next

house, in which were poor Lumsden and his wife, and thirty sepoys, every one of whom and their servants were put to death. On the morning the 10th, Poett and Davis were obliged to retire from their posts; and the survivors here now assembled in the two houses held by colonel Palmer and the head-quarters of the corps. You cannot picture to yourself the scene these two houses presented; every room was crammed, not only with sepoys but camp-followers, men, women, and children; and it is astonishing the slaughter among them was not greater, seeing that the guns of the citadel sent round-shot crashing through and through the walls. I saw high-caste men groping in the mud, endeavouring to discover pieces of unmelted ice, that by sucking them they might relieve the thirst that tormented them! Certainly when that morning dawned, I thought it was the last I should see on this earth, and so did we all, and proceeded to make a few little arrangements ere the final attack on us took place. The regimental colours were burned to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy, and I destroyed my watch and flung it and what money I had over the wall into the ditch; I also burned my poor wife's miniature, first cramming the gold frame of it into a musket, being determined that one of the Ghazees should have his bellyful of gold ere I died. Hour after hour passed on, and still we sat expecting every minute to hear the shout of the final attack—but it came not: from our loopholes we saw the enemy swarming all around us in every lane and house, and on the hill of the citadel: the place was black with their masses, and, as they themselves afterwards told us, there were not less than 10,000 men there thirsting for our blood. But it appears that Shumsoodeen had been affected with some qualms of conscience, and had held a council of his chiefs on the subject of admitting us to quarter. I should tell you that, during the three pre-

vious days' fighting, Shumsoodeen had repeatedly offered us terms, but they were such as we could not accede to; inasmuch as they commenced by desisting we would surrender ourselves to him and abandon the sepoy to the fury of the Ghazees. The sepoy, it appears, had held a consultation among themselves, and believing they had no chance of their lives, determined on forcing their way out of the town and endeavouring to get to Peshawur. When we first heard of this mad design and spoke to the men about it, they denied it; but on the 10th two native officers came forward and told us they had made up their minds to go off that night; that if we chose to accompany them they would be exceedingly glad, but if otherwise they would go alone; it was in vain we pointed out the utter impracticability of their plan; they had got an idea among them, that Peshawur was not above fifty or sixty miles off across country, and that there was a short cut to it through the mountains: they immediately commenced digging a hole through the outer wall of the town, by which, as soon as it got dark, they might march out into the country.

Our last illustrations are from the modest work of sergeant-major Taylor, whose 'Scenes and Adventures in Afghanistan,' wholly free as they are from political discussion, come as a positive elixir and cordial to the feelings that have been necessarily harassed by a perusal of the already quoted important narratives. 'I should never have dreamt,' runs the worthy sergeant-major's preface, 'of undertaking such a task, had not the partiality of good-natured, though perhaps misjudging friends, overcome the scruples which a consciousness of my own deficiencies excited, and induced me to commit to paper the scenes with which they professed themselves to have been amused.' We are sure that all who have bought and read Eyre and lady Sale, will find it their interest to add the sergeant-major's equally mo-

derately-priced work to their library.

The 4th light dragoons, to which the sergeant-major belonged, were stationed in cantonments seventy miles from Bombay, when orders arrived for the detachment's removal to the presidency, with a view to embark for its destination. From Bombay the detachment sailed with other troops, November 15, 1838, and in fourteen days arrived off the mouth of the Indus, and there instantly disembarked in *pattemars*, small and clumsy coasting-vessels peculiar to the country. As the march was to be through Scinde, then a hostile state, the cavalry were ordered to sharpen their sabres, and the infantry were served with sixty rounds of ball cartridge. On the fifth day's march they reached Tattah, or 'the city of the dead,' as the natives call it, a Hindu town, in which the sergeant-major visited two devotees, who, for the neglect of some religious rite, had condemned themselves to sit for seven years, without covering of any sort beyond a blanket, rocking themselves to and fro by day, and swallowing only enough rice and water to sustain the vital powers. Here a *dāk*, or native postman, who had crossed the river from Bhooj, with letters for the camp, was waylaid by two Beluches, and the letter-bag taken from him. His captors, having brought him to their retreat in the hills, secured his hands behind his back, and lay down to sleep, one of them using the letter-bag as a pillow. The *dāk* remained quiet until their snoring satisfied him they were sound asleep; and then, slipping his hands out of the ligatures, he stole over to the fellow who had the post-bag under him, and placing his knee on his breast, cut his throat from ear to ear with a knife which he had taken from the mountaineer's person, and made off with the bag. In about ten minutes after, he heard the other Beluche close upon his heels, and redoubling his speed, a chase of nearly ten miles ensued, in the course of

which the poor fellow had two or three times nearly yielded from fatigue. The dreadful fate that awaited him, should he fall into his pursuers' hands, flashed however across his mind, and plucking up fresh strength and courage, he at length succeeded in reaching the camp; but in so weak and exhausted a state, that nature was near sinking under the effort. 'On the 25th of December, sir Henry Pottinger came into camp from Hydrabad (captain Outram having been previously received, when sent about the delay of tribute, in the haughtiest manner by the Scinde amceers in that capital), the amceers not only refusing to pay the arrears of tribute that were due, but treating the envoy with every sort of indignity. The Bengal army, having come through the Punjaub, and crossed the Indus at Roree, was now ready to act in conjunction with us on the right bank of the river; and the commander-in-chief resolved to lose no further time in investing the city. He accordingly commenced operations by planting a battery on some heights which commanded the walls, but which were at too great a distance for the guns to do much damage. To the great disappointment of both officers and men, who already revelled in the anticipation of prize-money, the amceers became alarmed at these demonstrations, and came to terms. An envoy, whose appearance created no small amusement in the camp, was despatched from Hydrabad to adjust the necessary preliminaries. He was a short, thick-set fellow, with a merry twinkling eye, and as little as possible of what is called 'official dignity' about him. He brought with him from twenty to thirty lakhs of rupees; but the reception which he met with from sir John Keane was not calculated to elevate the worthy functionary in his own estimation.' 'Continuing our route, we arrived at the Lukkee pass, where we found some thermal springs, from which the sick derived considerable benefit. A noble lake at the further extremity of

the defile afforded our officers several days' shooting and fishing; while the beautiful scenery by which we were surrounded on every side, furnished such of them as were artists with fine subjects for the exercise of the pencil. Precipitous heights, assuming every variety of fantastic form, stretched downward to the water's edge, some in graceful sweeps, and others in bold and threatening attitudes; whilst their bases were hid in rich woods, or washed by the waters of the lake.' Leaving Seliwan (a populous village seventy English miles from Hydrabad), the forces crossed the Indus in poutoons, and entered a fertile tract of country, the natives exhibiting no symptoms of fear at their approach, but continuing peaceably the tilling of their lands. At Larkhana, the boundary between Upper and Lower Scinde, and a town wherein long-cloths are manufactured in considerable quantities, sir John Keane quit- ted the main body, with two squadrons of native cavalry, and some artillery, to proceed to Kandahar, where he was to assume the command of the grand army of the Indus; and the command of the troops consequently devolving upon major-general Wiltshire, the force soon after entered upon a desert plain, separating Upper Scinde from Beluchistan, about fifty miles in extent, and completely divested of vegetation, the white soil lying exposed to, and reflecting back with intensity, the scorching rays of the sun. 'The infantry entered on this cheerless waste about three in the afternoon, and the cavalry followed about five. The former were fully accoutred, and carried sixty rounds of cartridge each. At two o'clock the following morning the cavalry overtook them, and the general halt sounded. So great was the fatigue of the infantry, that numbers threw themselves upon the ground in despair, declaring it was impossible for human nature to sustain more, and they could proceed no further. It must be borne in mind that our rations had, for two months previous,

consisted of only half a pound of flour and an equal quantity of red rice, with about four ounces of meat, and the latter was in some instances of no use to us, from the difficulty of procuring fuel to cook it. The order of march having been again given, several refused to move, from sheer exhaustion; and their situation became one of great embarrassment to their colonel, who was aware that if he left them behind, they would be instantly sabred by the enemy, who were always hovering on our rear. Recollecting it was St. Patrick's Day, and that most of the recusants were Irishmen, he ordered, as a last resource, that the band of the regiment should strike up their national anthem. The effect was electrical; the poor devils, whose limbs, a short time previous, had refused to perform their accustomed office, and whose countenances wore the aspect of the most abject despondency, seemed at once to have new life and energy infused into them. They felt that this was an appeal to their proverbial bravery and powers of endurance; and gratified vanity did that which threats and remonstrances had failed to effect. A faint smile lit up their features; and slowly rising from the ground, they tottered on their way. It was well that they did so, or they would have fallen victims to the most savage cruelties—three of the army cooks, who were necessarily in the wake of the force, being seized at dusk by the Beluches, and carried away on horses. When the British pursued the forayers, they ripped up two of their victims, from the abdomen to the throat, and threw them loose; and of the third they cut off the left arm, as he was escaping from the saddle of his captor.

Descending the hills to our right, we one day observed a funeral procession; and, curious to witness the ceremonies, I followed at a little distance. The corpse was swathed in cotton bandages, like a mummy, the head only being left exposed; and it was borne

on a bamboo bier or stretcher, on the shoulders of four men. The relations and friends of the deceased gave vent to their grief in the bitterest lamentations; and there appeared a depth and sincerity in their woe, which is but too often wanting at our European rites. The procession was headed by a faquir, or priest, whose rolling eyes, and long dishevelled locks, gave him a wild and unearthly appearance. His costume was no less singular than his looks; for it consisted of a motley sort of garment, composed of patches of almost every coloured cloth, with a cap or rather a crown of peacocks' feathers. Arrived at the place of interment, which was situated in the valley, the procession halted at a freshly-dug grave, and the bier was laid beside it. The crowd formed themselves into a circle round it; and the faquir, holding up a small idol, commenced an oration, in which he expatiated on the merits of the deceased. The crowd having prostrated themselves, the faquir took a reddish sort of powder, and made a large mark with it on the forehead of the dead man; then, taking a basket of freshly-pulled flowers and herbs, he scattered them over the body, and into the grave. The mourners, rising from the ground, and walking in single files round the bier, made a respectful salaam towards it; after which the corpse was lowered perpendicularly into the earth, and the grave filled up. At the conclusion, the faquir sat himself on a stone at a short distance from the grave, and remained there, quietly smoking his hookah. The troops, now joined by the Bengal forces, had worked nearly through the celebrated Bhojun Pass in eight days, when the Beluches assailed them with great determination, and were not beaten off without great loss to themselves, and some to the British. During the heat of the firing, a mistake occurred, which at first occasioned some alarm, but was soon converted into a burst of uncontrollable merriment. Our

men had driven the last of the enemy up the hill, the latter peppering away at us from every rock or crevice where they could find shelter, when our attention was arrested by the appearance of a general officer on the heights to our left, who appeared to be making signs to us. It was at first supposed that one of our leaders had fallen into the hands of the enemy; and universal consternation prevailed. The general at length took off his shaco, and advancing to the very edge of the precipice, waved it in the air, as if to cheer us on to the rescue; when, to our infinite amusement, we discovered it was the fellow who had made off with the brigadier's kit, and who, after examining the contents of it, had rigged himself out in full uniform. The rocks echoed with laughter, and the pseudo-general appeared to enjoy the fun as much as any of us; for he capered about in a perfect ecstacy of delight, and gave expression to his contentment in the most delectable yells. A shower of balls was at length directed against him; and the brigadier's swarthy representative came tumbling down the precipice, to render himself and his briefly enjoyed honours into our hands. Amongst the booty carried off upon this occasion, were the wind-instruments belonging to the 1st Bombay Cavalry, and a bullock carrying two packages of ball-ammunition, which contained 500 rounds each. Some amusement was created amongst us, by speculations as to the probable use that would be made of the former,—the humour displayed in the appropriation of General Scott's kit having given us a high idea of the waggish propensities of the enemy. Our fun however was turned into mortification, when we beheld them cutting our ball-ammunition into slugs to fit the bore of their gingalls, and sending it back to us from the heights in as wholesale quantities as they had taken it.

At length the force arrives at the Khojuck Pass; and the description

is highly graphic and in good keeping. Dost Mohammed had visited the place a few days before, but, luckily for the British, had not thought it worth while to oppose them at a spot where he might have annihilated them to a man, and thereby maintained his usurped dignity. To enable the reader (continues the serjeant-major) to judge of its importance, a brief description of the pass will be necessary. Ascending an eminence of no great height, a platform of rock is gained, from which a glorious view bursts upon the sight. Immediately below is a steep declivity, along whose rugged sides winds the narrow road, while a chasm of immense depth yawns beneath, and threatens to engulf the luckless passenger, should he chance to slip as he treads his way down the difficult and dangerous descent. Receding into the far distance lie long ranges of blue mountains, broken at intervals into open plains and valleys, whose calm smiling aspect contrasts well with the frowning majesty of the neighbouring heights. Nothing could be finer than the view which presented itself as our troops wound round the brow of this tremendous precipice, their arms glittering in the sun, and their uniforms imparting a gay and dazzling variety to the sober hues of the stunted herbage with which its sides were clad. The infantry, consisting of several companies of the Queen's Royals, and a party of the 17th regiment, were ordered to line the heights, in order to protect the descent of the artillery and cavalry, together with the heavy baggage. So steep was the road (if road it could be called) that the cavalry were obliged to dismount and lead their horses, bridle in hand, and the artillery to unlimber their guns and drag them down the precipice; a task, as the reader may conceive, of no small labour and difficulty. About half way down, a camel, laden with camp equipage, missed its footing, and was precipitated into the abyss with its conductor, and both were, of

course, immediately dashed to pieces. We reached the plain without any further mishap about six o'clock the same evening, and had every reason to congratulate ourselves that the cowardice or negligence of the enemy had prevented them from disputing our passage. We arrived at Kandahar on the 4th of May, and effected a junction with the remainder of the Bengal forces under sir Willoughby Cotton. Here we were joined by Shah Shujah, in company with sir William Macnaghten and sir Alexander Burnes. The dethroned monarch immediately took possession of his ancestral palace, which had just been evacuated by the enemy. The reverses of fortune to which these Asiatic sovereigns are subject, have so steeled them against adversity, that I doubt if his majesty was agitated, even by a passing emotion, at this important event. If he felt at all, it was perhaps more a sensation of fear than joy; for he could not conceal from himself the fact, that the opinions of his subjects were arraigned to a man against him, and that, under such circumstances, (mark the words of the prophetic sergeant-major,) his tenure of sovereignty would, in all probability, be terminated by a bloody death. 'At the further extremity of the bazaar in Kandahar, stands a noble mosque, in which are interred the remains of Shah Shujah's father and grandfather. A lofty gilt dome and graceful minarets distinguish it above the other buildings of the town; and the effect, as it is approached from the distance, is extremely imposing. On entering this beautiful temple, the visitor is conducted up a flight of marble steps to a platform within the dome, where the remains of the deceased princes lie. The tombs are covered with palls of blue velvet, fringed with gold, and illuminated by about two hundred lamps, which are kept burning night and day; while forty faquirs, or priests, watch perpetually over them. Two magnificent folio editions of the Koran, bound in velvet, and ornamented with charac-

ters of gold, were also shown us, with a degree of reverence that proved the estimation in which they were held.' While at Kandahar several of the Afghan chiefs, thinking the cause of Dost Mohammed on the decline, tendered their allegiance to Shah Shujah; but they privately lamented to some of the English the course they thought it prudent to adopt; describing the Dost as a person of a just and generous nature, while they represented the Shah as cruel and unprincipled. 'The Afghan horsemen are a fine athletic set of men, and capitally mounted; their breed of cattle being much superior to ours, and exhibiting proofs of the most careful grooming. The riders wore coats of mail, with steel gauntlets; and their arms consisted of a sabre, heavier and longer than ours, a dagger, and, in some instances, shields and matchlocks. I have no hesitation in saying, that the Afghan cavalry, if these were a fair sample of them, are a most effective body of men. They may not be equal to ours in the field; but for a harassing system of mountain warfare, where they are required to make sudden descents upon infantry penned in between defiles, and embarrassed, by ignorance of the country, no body of troops can be better adapted. Their horses are light-limbed, but strong and wiry, and capable of undergoing incredible fatigue; while the trooper himself, practised from infancy in the management of the animal, can ride over places where no European horseman would venture. Had these wild mountaineers but the advantage of discipline and proper organization, their country would be inaccessible to any troops in the world.'

While at Kandahar, the second city in Afghanistan, it was thought wise to inaugurate Shah Shujah; and the sergeant-major, although he speaks lightly of the theatrical appearance of 'a platform canopied with crimson silk, and ornamented with numerous banners and devices, the seat reserved for the shah being ascended by a broad flight of tapes-

tried steps, and covered with cushions of crimson and gold,' was struck somewhat by the ceremonial procession. 'As early as six o'clock, the commander-in-chief took up his position in front of the line, and was received with a general salute. The shah was soon after observed leaving the gates of the city on an elephant, the howdah of which was of solid silver. His majesty appeared to me to be between fifty and sixty years of age, of middle stature, and somewhat inclined to corpulency. His features were large but regular; but the expression which played about them, was not calculated to leave a favourable impression on the physiognomist. His majesty was accompanied by his vizir, a tall, spare-looking man, of a thoughtful and rather melancholy cast of features, and somewhat older than his master. Immediately behind the shah rode sir William Macnaghten, in full court dress, such as is usually worn by officials at her majesty's levee in England; and he was followed by sir Alexander Burnes, in a plain suit, and surrounded by the Afghan chiefs, with whom he appeared to be in close and friendly conversation. The winning smile, and frank and courteous manner of the latter gentleman (Burnes), appeared to have gained for him a degree of consideration amongst the natives, which no other European could boast of, and which was principally attributable to the talismanic influence of qualities that have a never-failing effect in softening down and subduing even the most rugged and intractable natures. 'Nothing could exceed the splendour of the costumes in which these chiefs were clad, their turbans and weapons being studded with diamonds and other precious stones; whilst the horses on which they were mounted were perfect models of animal beauty.'

The force arrived in sight of Ghuzni July 21, 'the strength of which,' says the sergeant-major, 'we found underrated rather than exaggerated.' As respects the famous

tomb of Mahmud—'nearly equidistant from the town and the fort, and surrounded by luxuriant orchards and vineyards, stands the famous tomb of Mahmud of Ghuzni. It consists of an oblong building, 36 feet by 18, and about 30 feet in height, and is crowned by a mud cupola. The gates are said to be of sandal-wood, and were taken from the temple of Somnath by the conqueror, whose remains lie entombed here. The grave-stone in the interior is made of the finest white marble, but its once rich sculpture is now nearly defaced; and it presents but few traces of the Arabic characters with which it was formerly inscribed. Over the last resting-place of the hero, and in a sadly decayed state, are suspended the banner of green silk, and the enormous mace which he had so often borne in battle.' The storming of the great gate of Ghuzni (see page 621) is thus recorded: 'The result of this reconnaissance was a report to his excellency the commander-in-chief, that if he decided upon the immediate attack on Ghuzni, the only feasible mode of proceeding, and the only one which held out a prospect of success, was a dash at the Kaubul gateway, blowing the gate open by bags of powder.' After midnight, therefore, the explosion party marched steadily on, headed by lieutenant Durand; the powder was placed, the hose laid, the train fired, and the carrying party had retired to tolerable cover in less than two minutes. 'The artillery opened when our blue lights appeared (used to render surrounding objects distinctly visible), and the musketry from the covering party fired at the same time. So quickly was the operation performed, and so little was the enemy aware of the nature of it, that not a man of the party was hurt. As soon as the explosion took place, captain Peat, although hurt by the concussion, his anxiety preventing him from keeping sufficiently under cover, ran up to the gate, accompanied by a small party of her majesty's 13th light infantry, and ascertained,

that it was completely destroyed. There was some delay in getting a bugler to sound the advance hereupon—the only mistake in the operation. The assaulting column, commanded by brigadier Sale, moved steadily through the gateway, and through a passage inside the gateway, having for roof a domed building, in which the opening on one side rendered every thing very obscure, and made it difficult to find the outlet into the town. They met with very little opposition; but the party of the enemy, seeing a peak in the column, owing to the difficulty in scrambling over the rubbish in the gateway, made a rush sword-in-hand, and cut down a good many men, wounding the brigadier and several other officers. These swordsmen were repulsed, and there was no more regular opposition—the surprise and alarm of the governor and sirdars being so great, when they saw the column occupying the open space inside the gate, and firing upon them, that they fled, accompanied by their men—even the garrison of the citadel following their example. Parties of the Afghans took refuge in the houses, firing on the column as it made its way through the streets; and a good deal of desultory fighting took place in consequence, by which some loss was sustained. The citadel was occupied as soon as daylight showed that it had been abandoned by the enemy; and the whole of the works were in our possession before five A.M. ‘The cavalry taking no part (continues the sergeant-major) in these operations, I was an idle, but not the less an anxious spectator of the scene. I had never before witnessed effects so awfully grand, or so intensely exciting in their nature, as those which immediately preceded and followed the explosion at the gate. The atmosphere was illumined by sudden and powerful flashes of various-coloured light, which exposed the walls and bastions of the fortress view, and, revealed the dusky figures of the garrison, in the act of

pointing their guns, or endeavouring to penetrate the denseness of the obscurity beneath, in order to assure themselves of the position of their assailants. Then followed the din and roar of artillery—the terrific explosion of the gate—the crash of woodwork and masonry—the hollow rumbling of the old towers as they came in huge masses to the ground—the rush of the storming party through the breach—and the deafening cheers and shouts of besiegers and besieged. It seemed as if all the elements of destruction had been let loose at once; and yet I panted to be in the midst of them. I hardly dared to breathe, from the very intenseness of my anxiety; and it was not till I saw the British flag floating from the citadel, that I could respire freely. To the soldier, there is nothing more trying or chafing, than to be condemned to a state of inaction during the progress of such spirit-stirring events.

‘While the Afghans were disputing our entrance into the citadel, an incident occurred which for a moment diverted the attention of the combatants, and turned their fury into pity. Amongst the foremost of the party who signalised themselves by their desperate gallantry, was an aged chieftain, the richness of whose costume excited general attention—his turban and weapons being resplendent with jewels. The hope of plunder immediately marked him out as an object of attack, and numbers at once assailed him. He defended himself like a man who knew there was no chance of life, but who was resolved to sell it as dearly as he could. He had killed several of the queen’s Royals, and severely wounded captain Robinson, when a grenadier of the company to which the latter belonged, seeing his officer in danger, rushed to his assistance, and, with a thrust of his bayonet, brought the gallant old chieftain to the ground. The grenadier was about to despatch him, when a beautiful girl of about seventeen threw herself into the mêlée, and plunged a dagger into his

breast. She then cast herself on the body of the chieftain, for the purpose of protecting it; and the Afghans, forming a sort of rampart before them, maintained their ground until the heroic girl succeeded in getting it conveyed into the interior of the citadel. Shortly after the place was taken, she was found weeping over the remains of the brave old man, who, on inquiry, we learned was her father. She was treated with the utmost respect and tenderness by our men; who neither obtruded themselves on her grief, nor offered any interruption to the preparation which she had made for his interment.' Again, 'I entered the fort shortly after it surrendered, and at every step spectacles of the most shocking and revolting nature met the eye. Round a long twenty-pounder, which was planted to the right of the entrance, lay heaps of dead Afghans, who appeared to have attached the greatest importance to the service of this piece, from the numbers who had crowded to perform the duty whenever our fire killed those engaged in it. The agonizing cries and groans of the wounded wretches who lay stretched at every side, and who craved drink to sate their burning thirst, struck those who had not been engaged in the fearful excitement of the scene, with horror and pity; whilst, at every turning, a horse, wild with the injuries he had received, was to be seen galloping furiously along the narrow streets, and treading the bodies of the dying and dead under foot. Advancing through the bazaar, my attention was drawn towards a venerable-looking Afghan, who was seated on the ground with his back propped against a wall, and whose richly-ornamented muslin robes were stained with blood, which flowed profusely from a wound in his breast. A fine-looking youth of about fourteen years of age, was attempting to stanch it, and I proffered my assistance. The old man, however, pushed me back, and would not let me approach him, plainly in-

dicating by his gestures that he held me and my countrymen in abhorrence. Whilst standing at a short distance from him, a straggling ball came whizzing past me, whether intentionally or accidentally I cannot say, and put an end to his sufferings. Some soldiers who afterwards examined the person of this old chief, for such from his attire I took him to be, discovered, amongst other things, an extremely well-executed map, on which the whole route of our troops, from the point at which we had disembarked, to our arrival at Ghuzni, was plainly indicated.'

'A few days after the taking of Ghuzni, a tragical scene occurred, which pretty clearly indicated how the tide of popular feeling ran with regard to the restored monarch. The majority of the prisoners who fell into our hands were released, on condition of their serving in the shah's army; but there remained about thirty, who refused to accept of their liberty on such terms. They consisted for the most part of the immediate followers of Dost Mohammed's father-in-law, and were devotedly attached to that prince. The shah, on learning the circumstance, ordered them to be brought before him, and expostulated with them on the folly of their conduct. A chief, of haughty bearing, stepped from amongst the prisoners, and, after overwhelming his majesty with reproaches, told him that nothing should induce him to enter the service of a man who had brought the horrors of foreign invasion on his country. Then suddenly snatching a dagger from one of the attendants, he rushed with uplifted arm towards the shah, and would have pierced him to the heart, had not one of his majesty's servants interposed his person, and received the blow intended for his master. The faithful domestic fell dead at the feet of the shah, and the officers and attendants instantly rushed towards the assassin with drawn swords; but he had already anticipated their intention, by plunging the poniard in

his own breast. The shah, alarmed and exasperated, ordered the whole of the prisoners to be immediately executed; and, in a few minutes their heads were rolling in the dust.'

On the 7th of August, the army encamped before Kaubul; and as Dost Mohammed and his forces had fled to the hills on the first notice of its approach, a vain pursuit of him took place by troops under captain Outram for some days. The sergeant-major states the mosque at Kaubul, containing the remains of the Great Mongul Baber, to be the finest temple he had seen in Asia—the outside architecturally beautiful, the interior magnificently adorned with gilding and sculpture, and the pavement being composed of rich mosaic. The celebrated Balla Hisar towers high above the other buildings, and is the palace as well as castle of the sovereign. 'It is surrounded by beautiful gardens, and is entered by a large flagged court-way, leading to the principal portal of the edifice. The proportions of the building are on a scale commensurate with royalty; the centre being surmounted by a lofty dome, and the wings being of vast extent. The right wing contains the stabling of the shah, and chambers of the household; and the left is appropriated to the sovereign's own use. The once yet more famous Bazaar and its contents are thus described by the same sensible writer. 'The bazaar is of circular form, the streets composing it radiating from an open space in its centre, and presenting a thronged and busy aspect. The principal articles of merchandise which attracted our notice, were cachemire shawls of the richest and most expensive patterns, and costly silks of every description. A considerable trade is also carried on in preserved fruits, which find their way hence to the most distant parts of Hindustan. In the fruit-market we observed grapes which measured nearly two inches in circumference; peaches, whose rich bloom, and luscious quality gratified

at once the eye and the palate; and strawberries, such as the hot-houses of Europe, and all the inventions of horticultural science, could not force into existence. As to apples and pears, fruits prized in the western hemisphere, they were in such abundance, and of such low price, that they were only deemed worthy of furnishing food for cattle. Almost all the necessaries of life were in equal profusion; beef fetching only a penny, and mutton twopence the pound. It may be readily imagined that, to the tired and half-starved soldier, Kaubul appeared almost like a second land of promise.' Shah Shujah, on his triumphant entry into his capital, after thirty years of exile, 'was, as usual, borne on an elephant, the howdah of which was of silver, and the caparisons crimson and gold. On either side of him sat sir William Macnaghten and sir Alexander Burnes; the former attired in the same court-dress which he had worn at Kandahar. His majesty appeared in excellent health and spirits, and addressed much of his conversation to sir Alexander Burnes, who seemed to be high in his favour. The shah's costume was, as usual, magnificent; his turban being ornamented with a single diamond, whose value was estimated at 100,000*l*. Immediately after, came six elephants, containing the ministers and household of the shah; and then followed the commander-in-chief, with the whole of the general officers and staff, in brilliant uniforms, and decorated with their various orders.' Of the Sikhs, he says, 'We expected to find the Sikhs an undisciplined horde of barbarians; but they turned out, on the contrary, to be nearly as well organized as ourselves; being disciplined by French officers, and marching with the same order and regularity as a European regiment. Each division was headed by an excellent military band, and officered by the same number of grades as ourselves. The men were in general about the middle height; but not so muscular

or well-formed as the Afghans. They are made, however, of the right material for the soldier, being brave, orderly, and tractable; and though they may be considered in some respects inferior to European troops, they are in my opinion equal, if not superior, to the sepoys.' In concluding our illustrations from Mr. Taylor's highly-pleasing volume, we must beg again to recommend its perusal to our readers.

We have a few remarks to make ere we close the Kaubul history. The following is lady Sale's version of the envoy's and captain Trevor's murder. 'I received a note from Lawrence, inclosing one from Connolly to lady Macnaghten, and had the sad office imposed on me of informing both her and Mrs. Trevor of their husbands' assassination. Over such scenes I draw a veil. It was a most painful meeting to us all. All reports agree, that both the envoy's and Trevor's bodies are hanging in the public chook (street); the envoy's decapitated, and a mere trunk, the limbs having been carried in triumph through the city. It was a most decided piece of treachery on the part of Ukhbar. They were seated on a bank together; Lawrence, a very spunky active man, felt as if something was wrong, and when urged to sit, only knelt on one knee, that he might start up on occasion; but his pistol and sword were seized, and his arms secured instantaneously, which rendered him powerless, and he was hurried away behind a chief on horseback, as was Mackenzie. At that time Mohammed Ukhbar Khan had seized the envoy by his left wrist, and sultan Jan held him by his right; they dragged him down the bank, he exclaiming, 'Az burar Kodar!' (for the love of God!); but the moment he was laid hands on, Mackenzie, Trevor, and Lawrence, were disarmed, and forced away *en croup* behind different chiefs. They saw no more of the envoy alive. Sultan Jan, uttering an opprobrious epithet, calling him a dog, cut poor

Trevor down; as did also Moollah Momind. Mackenzie would have shared the same fate, had not Mohammed Shah Khan, behind whom he rode, received the cut on his own arm, which went through his posh-teen. Lawrence's life was saved by hard galloping, but he received some blows. This account I had from the surviving principals in the tragedy; so it may be depended on as the true account. The body we saw from the rear gate was that of the envoy.' Her ladyship's opinion of Ukhbar Khan, and of the Afghan invasion, is thus drawn. After alluding to the English papers having accused her of a strong prepossession in favour of that perfidious chieftain, she says, 'As for my great prepossession in favour of Ukhbar, my greatest wish is that general Nott's force should march up to Ghuzni, release the prisoners there, and then that a simultaneous movement should take place of Nott's and Pollock's forces upon Kaubul. Once again in power here, I would place Ukhbar, Mohammed Shah, and sultan Jan, *hors-de-combat*, befriend those who befriended us, and let the Afghans have the ameer Dost Mohammed Khan back, if they like. Let us first show the Afghans that we can both conquer them and revenge the foul murder of our troops; but do not let us dishonour the British name by sneaking out of the country like whipped Pariah dogs. Afghanistan will become a byword amongst the nations. Had we retreated as poor Sturt proposed, without baggage, with celerity (forced marches to get through the snow), and had the men stood by us (a doubtful point—they were so worn out and dispirited), we might have figured in history, and have cut out Xenophon's account of the retreat of the 10,000. As to the justice of dethroning Dost Mohammed, and setting up Shah Shùjah, I have nothing to say regarding it: nor regarding our policy in attempting to keep possession of a country of uncivilised people, so far from our own—hence

all supplies of ammunition, money, &c., must be obtained. Let our governors-general, and commanders-in-chief look to that, whilst I knit socks for my grandchildren; but I have been a soldier's wife too long to sit down tamely, whilst our honour is tarnished in the sight and opinion of savages. Had our army been cut to pieces by an avowed enemy, whether in the field or in the passes—let them have used what stratagems they pleased—all had been fair. Ukhbar had shone as another William Tell; he had been the deliverer of his country from a hateful yoke imposed on them by kaffirs: but here he stands, by his own avowal freely made, the assassin of the envoy—not by proxy, but by his own hand. I do believe he only meant to make him prisoner, for the purpose of obtaining better terms and more money; but he is a man of ungovernable passions, and his temper, when thwarted, is ferocious. He afterwards professed to be our friend—we treated with him—great was the credulity of those who placed confidence in him; still they blindly did so, even after the letter was received from Conolly at Bhoodkhak, confirming the previous warnings of his intentions towards us. He followed us with his bloodthirsty Ghilzies. Mohammed Shah Khan, his principal adviser, I might almost say his master, is the most inveterate of our enemies. Ukhbar is a jovial, smooth-tongued man; full of compliments and good-fellowship; and has the knack of talking over both kaffirs and true-believers. To our cost, he did talk our chiefs over, and persuaded them of his friendship; and said that those sugs (dogs) of Ghilzies were intent on murder and plunder, and totally unmanageable. In this way he hovered on our flanks and rear; and when our people were massacred, and his bloodhounds in human shape were tolerably glutted with their blood, the scene was changed—although it was constantly reacted. In the distance, a group of horsemen

invariably appeared: they were beckoned to, questioned as to what chief was present,—it was invariably Ukhbar,—who always pretended good-faith, said his 300 horsemen were too few to protect us from the Ghilzies, &c.—and then, the following day witnessed a repetition of the slaughter and pretended friendship. For that this friendship was a mere pretence, was acknowledged by him when he said, 'I was the man who killed your envoy with my own hand; I destroyed your army; I threw aside all ties of family, deserted every thing for the faith of Islam; and now I am left to bear the opprobrium heaped on me by the Feringhees, whilst no one supports me; but were I in power, I would make the chiefs remember it!' and then he uttered maledictions on their heads. He has kept his word, has been a bitter enemy to all who have shown the slightest kindness to us, and grinds their money out of them by threats and torture. A woman's vengeance is said to be fearful; but nothing can satisfy mine against Ukhbar, Sultan Jan, and Mohammed Shah Khan. Still I say that Ukhbar having, for his own political purposes, done as he said he would do—that is, destroyed our army—letting only one man escape to tell the tale—and having got the families into his possession,—I say, having done this, he has, since we have been in his hands, treated us well:—that is, honour has been respected. It is true that we have not common comforts; but what we denominate such, are unknown to Afghan females. They always sleep on the floor, sit on the floor, &c.—hardships to us. Nothing can exceed the folly I have seen in the papers regarding my wonderful self;—how I headed the troops, &c. &c. It puts me in mind of Goldsmith's verses on Mrs. Blaze, in which he remarks that 'the king himself has followed her, when she has gone before:' and certainly I have thus headed the troops; for the chiefs told me to come on with them for safety's sake; and thus I certainly

did go far in advance of the column : but it was no proof of valour, though one of prudence.' It appears, from captain Johnson's account, that the sum of 14½ lakhs of rupees had been fixed on by major Pottinger, after the murder of the envoy, as that to be paid for the safe conduct of the troops from Kaubul to Peshawur, to the following sirdars : Mohammed Zeman Khan to have three lakhs ; Ameen Oollah Khan, 6 ; Khan Sheeren Khan, 2 ; Mohammed Ukhbar Khan, 1 ; Osman Khan, 2 ; the Ghilzie chiefs, 3. Of the Afghan ladies, the lively lady Sale thus writes : ' May 16th, I kept the anniversary of my marriage by dining with the ladies of Mohammed Shah Khan's family. It was an extremely stupid visit. We had two female servants to interpret for us. Three of Mohammed Shah Khan's wives, and some of Dost Mohammed's, with the mother of the chiefs, and two of their unmarried sisters, were present. They were, generally speaking, inclined to embonpoint, largely formed, and coarsely featured ; their dress inelegant, and of the coarsest materials. The favourite wife, and the best dressed, was attired in a common Kaubul silk, with a coarse piece of chintz inserted behind, evidently for economy's sake. The dress, which covers the whole person, nearly resembles a common night-dress ; and has tacked on to it coins, or other pieces of silver or gold, such as crescents, &c., all over the sleeves, the front, and sides, from the shoulders to the feet. A breast-plate is worn, commencing at the throat, of coins strung together : this descends far below the waist ; and when they sit down, it hangs in festoons on the lap. Only the favourite wore gold coins ; those of the other ladies being of silver. They had nothing in the way of jewels, properly so called. About seven common-sized pearls, surrounding an emerald full of flaws, the whole set as a nose ornament, was the handsomest thing I saw in the trinket way. Some of them had very infe-

rior earrings of gold and silver. They wear their hair in innumerable small plaits, hanging down ; these are arranged once a week, after taking the bath ; and the tresses are then well stiffened with gum. The unmarried women bend their hair in a flat braid across the forehead, touching the eyebrows ; which gives them a very heavy look. These said eyebrows, whilst they are maidens, remain as nature formed them ; but when they marry, the hair of the centre is carefully picked out, and the arch thus most unnaturally raised is painted. The Kaubul women are much addicted to the use of both white and red paint ; and they colour not only the nails, as in Hindustan, but the whole hand up to the wrist ; which looks as though it had been plunged in blood, and to our idea is very disgusting. A particular plant is used for this purpose. A chuddah (veil) is thrown over the head and shoulders in the house, as in Hindustan ; and when they go out, they wear the bouckaru-i-band (another veil) and legwraps ; high-heeled iron-shod slippers complete the costume. After a time, an exceedingly dirty cloth was spread over the numdas (coarse carpets) in front of us, and dishes of pillau, dhyc, or sour curd, and *fércé*, or sweet curd, were placed before us. Those who had not taken a spoon with them, ate with their fingers, Afghan fashion ;—an accomplishment in which I am by no means *au-fait*. We drank water out of a tea-pot. A dinner was given to the gentlemen by Abdoollah Khan at his tents, about two miles off, nearer the snow.' As to Afghan cleanliness, she observes : ' The Afghans are not addicted to general ablution : they wash their hands before and after their meals, which is but *comme il faut*, as they eat with their fingers ; and they constantly wear the same clothes a month. This is not economy. The wuzeer will take his bath perhaps once a week, and change his clothes : and the women never think of doing so often,

and only undo their gummed hair at such times.'

The entire population of the Afghan kingdom is estimated by Mr. Elphinstone at about a million of souls: of these, from 80,000 to 100,000 are inhabitants of Kaubul, and about a similar number of the city of Kandahar. The town of Istaliff, but little known to us till attacked and destroyed by general M'Caskill, September, 1842, contains about 15,000 inhabitants; Charekar about 3000; Ghuzni about 3000; and Quettah about 6000. The last-named town was at this time a portion of the Khanate of Kelat, to which it has since been re-annexed; from 1839 to 1842, we held it as belonging to Shah Shūjah. There are no other towns of note in the kingdom, save Jellalabad, which is within the first line of passes. Kaubul, the capital, is situated in lat. 34 deg. 30 min. N., and long. 68 deg. 31 min. E.; and is more than three miles in circumference. It is surrounded by rocky hills; and the beautiful but narrow valley in which it stands is no less than 6396 feet above the level of the sea. This valley is remarkable for the excellency and abundance of its fruits. The Balla Hissar, or citadel, is placed on an eminence, half a mile long and half as much broad, overlooking and commanding the city of Kaubul, which is difficult of access either to friend or foe. The city was chiefly remarkable for the magnificence of its bazaar, or rather series of bazaars. These buildings, formed by a continuation of streets roofed in and crossing each other at right angles, were, until our troops blew them up in 1842, the admiration of every traveller, and the architectural pride of central Asia. The revenues of the state of Kaubul amounted in Dost Mohammed's time to from 250,000*l.* to 300,000*l.* a year; during the period of our occupation they seldom exceeded 220,000*l.*; while, in addition to this, Kandahar yielded 80,000*l.*; and the whole revenues of the Shah

Shūjah betwixt 1839 and 1841, never probably amounted to any thing like 400,000*l.* a year. The charges we incurred on his account annually, are alleged to have been about eight times this. The winter throughout Afghanistan is exceedingly severe, the thermometer at Kaubul often sinking below zero, and remaining 8 or 10 deg. under freezing for three or four months together. This arises from the vast elevation of the greater portion of the country; and where the land is not thus high, a region is constantly found as hot as Hindustan, within a day's journey of a perpetually frozen country. The government of Afghanistan may be considered a limited monarchy: the shah can make peace or war, has the control of the revenue, and appoints to all not hereditary offices; but he cannot increase the revenue, which arises from a fixed assessment on the land. The trade of the state is trifling, and carried on entirely by caravans: the Afghans import cottons, muslins, ivory, wax, tin, sugar, and spices, from India; and export thither in return furs, shawls of their own manufacture, tobacco, fruits, and horses. The Afghans are the best breeders and tamers of horses in the world; and the animals, which are all of the heavy and substantial kind, make the most splendid military and state chargers conceivable. The Afghan grooms who are usually employed to tend the imported horses in Hindustan, keep their coats sleek by a daily administration of three or four balls comprised of butter, pounded sugar-candy, and flour, in equal proportions; and to give them fire and spirit on the road, they tie up their eyes while in the stable, so that, unable to bear the light on emerging thence with the bandage off, they caper about and show high mettle—to the great pleasure of the owners. Alexander the Great's Bucephalus must have come from the same soil. The land throughout Kaubul is cultivated by tenants who pay rent, or by persons who give half the produce to

the landlord, receiving seed and agricultural instruments from him. Many small proprietors cultivate their own land by the aid of hired labourers, or by slaves attached to the soil.

Thus have we brought down the history of the Afghans to the latest period. That these Asiatics are, with considerable mixture, the closest approach to the remnant of the ten tribes of Israel, that were carried captive by Shalmaneser into Assyria, 721 B.C., there can be little doubt: their traditions, tribal distinctions, certain religious habits (although Shiah moslims), their appearance, their own boast of king Saul being their founder, all tend to establish the fact of their Jewish descent. The ten tribes of Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Issachar, Zebulon, Joseph, Gad, Asher, Dan, and Naphtali, revolted to Jeroboam, 975 B.C., leaving only two tribes, those of Judah and Benjamin to the rightful sovereign, Rehoboam I. as shown in vol. i. 82. The Afghans are still divided into ten tomons or tribes, the five most influential of which are the Populzye, Barukzye, Nurzye, Barmizye, and Abkhuzye, who are called collectively the Duranis; whence the title of the deposed shah's family.

In most instances our readers, from the frequent explanations given in the 'Parallel History,' are well acquainted with the meaning of oriental terms in common use. Such eastern words as have been left untranslated in the Afghan history, we now explain. Shah-zada, a king's son; khan, a noble; sirdar, a general; sirdar-i-sirdan, generalissimo; topsheebashee, artillery commander, or, (says lady Sale) master-general of the ordnance; vakeel, a deputy; sipahees, sepoys, the native Hindu troops; shroffs, native bankers; ameer, a chief; Kuzzilbashes, residents in Kaubul of Persian descent; rajah, a ruler, from raj, a government; nawaub (nabob), a prince; meerza, a Moslem secretary; moonshee, an interpreter; chowdry, head of a bazaar; chuprassy, or hurkaru, a messenger;

dak, a native postman, or the post; fakir, a devotee; Feringhee, an European (foreigner to the Afghans); goorkha, a cowherd, a name applied to every native of Nepaul; havildar, a native troop-sergeant; jemadar, a native lieutenant; juzailchees, Afghan riflemen, from juzail, a long rifle; kaffirs, infidels; Synd, an Afghan descendant of the prophet, entitled to wear the green turban; peshkedmut, an attendant servant; ressalah, a troop of horse; musjid, a place of Moslem devotion; nullah, the bed of a river, or the river itself; shikargurs, preserves for game; zilzilla, an earthquake; zuna, a dwelling; compound, the inclosed ground round a house; nalkee, or palkee, palanquin; poshteen, a fur pelisse; bamaum (hum-mums) a bath; durbar, a levee; godown, a store-house; kujava, a camel-pannier; kos, two miles English; lakh, 100,000, or a plum; lakh of rupees (lae) 10,000 l. sterling; rupee, a silver coin worth two shillings English; bhoosa, chopped straw; dual, split peas; ghee, clarified butter; attah, ground wheat; pillau, a dish of meat and rice, Pushtu, the Afghan language, a dialect of the Persian; yaboo, an Afghan pony; saces, or syce, a groom; Balla Hissar, properly written, being Pushtu, *bala shuhur*, high fort; Ukhbar and Akhbar are English substitutes for the Pushtu name Ukhbûr; bunneahs, merchants, usually dealers in grain; khan is a title assumed in Kaubul by every man living without labour, like esquire in England.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER QUEEN VICTORIA.—George Eden, lord Auckland, arrived at Calcutta as governor-general and successor of lord William Bentinck, on the 4th of March, 1836, just at the moment that another mountain struggle began in Goomsoor, a territory inhabited by a peculiar race, called Khoonds, who had remained hitherto independent of the British. Their rajah having displayed a refractory spirit, a considerable force was despatched against him; and the troops, on reaching the sum-

mit of the alpine chain of mountains, which they were compelled to cross, were astonished to see before them an extensive and fertile tract of country, covered with fine villages in the most romantic situations. Little serious resistance was encountered: Goomsoor and the principal forts soon fell; the rajah, and afterwards his son, submitted; yet a number of detached chieftains, exercising a sort of feudal power over vassals devotedly attached to them, kept up for a time a desultory resistance. In one skirmish, two British officers were killed; and indeed the prolongation of a war in a country filled with jungle and marshes, caused severe sickness among the troops; and two campaigns elapsed before this bold tribe could be brought under full subjection. The Khoonds have, of course, ever since been tributaries of the Anglo-Indians. The revolution in the Burmese state, February, 1837 (see page 422), was the next Indian change that required the governor-general's attention; but, by the tact of the British resident at Ava, colonel Burney, (though the usurping prince, Tharawadi, had at first refused to acknowledge 'the servant of a company of London merchants,' meaning the governor-general of India, and announced that he would treat with a king's deputy only,' and moreover had declared he would not conform to the treaty of Yadoboo, 1824, by which we hold the Tenasserim provinces), the peace that had existed for some time between Burmah and the English, was not disturbed. A considerable sensation was excited in the same year, by the expected death of the king, or nawab, of Oude, whose state is regarded as the most important dependency of the Bengal government. The infirmities of the weak-minded king had long indicated that 'the throne might be suddenly vacated; and the necessity of a prompt interference by the British respecting the succession, made it important to watch the moment of the royal demise. The king had acknowledged

as his sons two youths, Kywan Jah, and Moonah Jaun; but the general belief was that he had acted under the influence of certain females, and that they were not his children. He himself finally made a declaration to that effect; and, after a good deal of consideration, the Anglo-Indian government determined to set them aside, and to support Nusseer-ud-Dowlah, the king's eldest surviving uncle, who, according to the peculiar tenour of Moslem law, was considered the legal heir. But the Padsha Begum, or queen-mother, a bold and ambitious princess, had in the meantime adopted Moonah Jaun, and was determined to espouse his cause. During the night of July 7, colonel Low, the resident, received a message that the king was taken suddenly ill, and was believed to be dying. That officer, having ordered his troops to be in readiness, obeyed the summons, but found the king had just expired. Having, in this crisis, obtained from Nusseer-ud-Dowlah an engagement to sign such a treaty as the governor-general should dictate, he led that prince to the royal residence, and caused preparations to be made for his immediate installation. Suddenly, however, a great noise was heard, and it soon appeared that the Padsha, with an armed force of about 2000 men, was approaching the palace, which, as the British soldiers had not yet arrived, was very slightly guarded. In spite of a warm remonstrance, the natives burst open the gates, filled the edifice with shouts and clamour, and seized both the prince and the Company's servants—in presence of whom Moonah Jaun was placed on the musnud, the Begum being seated in a palanquin beneath him. The insurgents, after some violent proceedings towards the resident, allowed him to retire; when, upon finding his men assembled, he sent repeated messages to the Begum, calling upon her to surrender. As she returned evasive answers, a battery was opened; and in a short time she and her partisans were made prisoners. The old

prince, whom, though he had endured many insults, they found safe, was immediately seated on the throne; and his accession was announced by a royal salute to the inhabitants of the capital. Claims to the Oude musnud were subsequently advanced by two nephews, sons of a deceased elder brother of the late king, who urged that, as their father, if alive, would have succeeded, they ought to inherit in his stead. This question, however, had early attracted the attention of the Bengal government, which, after much consideration and reference to high authorities, as well as to precedents (among which was that of the present king of Delhi), had concluded that, according to the principles of the Suni branch of the Moslems, a son cannot succeed to rights or property to which his father was heir, if he died before coming into actual possession. In this case the inheritance goes to a brother. A curious contest also arose between the two princes, as to which was the elder; and one of them spent a considerable time in England, but without being able to obtain any attention either from parliament or the Company, concerning his claim. A certain party of Indian politicians had suggested the propriety of adding Oude entirely to the British territory, since the direct succession could not be maintained. Their arguments for such a course went to show that the great English station of Cawnpore has no other object but to watch Oude, wherein all criminals from our provinces take refuge and find protection. Oude lies, as it were, between our upper and lower districts; and the great passageway of India, the mighty Ganges, flows through it; so that an enemy possessing the banks, which are often steep and commanding, could easily stop our commerce on that river above Allahabad. The late king of Oude, moreover, (say the same writers) was infamous for his vices (which, however, gives us no manner of right to do him wrong.)—his palace being the scene, of orgies disgraceful

to humanity; and as (say they) he constantly delivered over his miserable subjects to the merciless exactions of the ministers of his pleasures, his people openly called for the upright dominion of the British. The position of Herat in 1838 caused lord Auckland some anxiety. That fortress, the key of the west, which affords the only fortified obstacle from Teheran to the Indus, was beleaguered by a Persian army, under the guidance of Russian *employés*; and it seemed prudent that the Anglo-Indian government should send it aid. Captain Burnes was therefore despatched by the governor-general to Dost Mohammed, the usurping ameer of Kaubul, to ascertain his feelings towards the British, and improve them if possible; but after some fruitless negotiations, it was resolved that the Dost should be superseded by the restoration to the throne of the Afghans of Shah Shujah-ol-Mulk—who had been thirty years an exile from his country, living on our bounty. The reasons for this determination on the part of the Anglo-Indian government were contained in the following proclamation issued at the moment by lord Auckland, through the medium of the Delhi Gazette extraordinary, October 1st, 1838:

‘The governor-general of India, having, with the concurrence of the supreme council, directed the assemblage of a British force for service across the Indus, his lordship deems it proper to publish the following exposition of reasons which have led to this important measure. It is a matter of notoriety that the treaties entered into by the British government in 1832 with the ameers of Scinde, the nawab of Bahawalpore, and Maharajah Runjeet Singh, had for their object, by opening the navigation of the Indus, to facilitate the extension of commerce, and to gain for the British nation in Central Asia that legitimate influence, which an interchange of benefits would naturally produce. With a view to in-

vite the aid of the *de facto* rulers of Afghanistan to the measures necessary for giving full effect to those treaties, captain Burnes was deputed, towards the close of the year 1836, on a mission to Dost Mohammed Khan, chief of Kaubul: the original objects of that officer's mission were purely of a commercial nature. Whilst captain Burnes, however, was on his journey to Kaubul, information was received that the troops of Dost Mohammed had made a sudden and unprovoked attack on those of our ancient ally, Maharajah Runjeet Singh. It was naturally to be apprehended that the Maharajah would not be slow to avenge this aggression; and it was to be feared that, the flames of war being once kindled in the very regions into which we were endeavouring to extend our commerce, the peaceful and beneficial purposes of the British government would be altogether frustrated. In order to avert a result so calamitous, the governor-general resolved on authorising captain Burnes to intimate to Dost Mohammed Khan, that if he should evince a disposition to come to just and reasonable terms with the Maharajah, he would exert his good offices with his highness for the restoration of an amicable understanding between the two powers. The Maharajah, with the characteristic confidence he has uniformly placed in the faith and friendship of the British nation, at once assented to the proposition of the governor-general, to the effect that in the meantime hostilities on his part should be suspended. It subsequently came to the knowledge of the governor-general, that a Persian army was besieging Herat; that intrigues were actively prosecuted throughout Afghanistan for the purpose of extending Persian influence and authority to the banks of and even beyond, the Indus; and that the court of Persia had not only commenced a course of injury and insult to the officers of her majesty's mission in the Persian territory, but had afforded evidence of being en-

gaged in designs wholly at variance with the principles and objects of its alliance with Great Britain. After much time spent by captain Burnes in fruitless negotiation at Kaubul, it appeared that Dost Mohammed, chiefly in consequence of his reliance upon Persian encouragement and assistance, persisted, as respected his misunderstanding with the Sikhs, in urging the most unreasonable pretensions, such as the governor-general could not, consistently with justice and his regard for the friendship of Maharajah Runjeet Singh, be the channel of submitting to his consideration; that he avowed schemes of aggrandisement and ambition injurious to the security and peace of the frontiers of India; and that he openly threatened, in furtherance of these schemes, to call in every foreign aid which he could command. Ultimately he gave his undisguised support to the Persian designs in Afghanistan, of the unfriendly and injurious character of which, as concerned the British power in India, he was well apprized; and by his utter disregard of the views and interests of the British government, he compelled captain Burnes to leave Kaubul without having effected any of the objects of his mission. It was now evident that no further interference could be exercised by the British government, to bring about a good understanding between the Sikh ruler and Dost Mohammed Khan; and the hostile policy of the latter chief showed too plainly, that so long as Kaubul remained under his government, we could never hope that the tranquillity of our neighbourhood would be secured, or that the interests of our Indian empire would be preserved inviolate. The governor-general deems it in this place necessary to revert to the state of Herat, and the conduct of the Persian nation. The siege of that city had now been carried on by the Persian army for many months. The attack upon it was a most unjustifiable and cruel aggression, perpetrated

and continued notwithstanding the solemn and repeated remonstrances of the British envoy at the court of Persia, and after every just and becoming offer of accommodation had been made and rejected. The besieged have behaved with a gallantry and fortitude worthy of the justice of their cause; and the governor-general would yet indulge the hope that their heroism may enable them to maintain a successful defence, until succours shall reach them from British India. In the meantime the ulterior designs of Persia, affecting the interests of the British government, have been, by a succession of events, more and more openly manifested. The governor-general has recently ascertained that Mr. M'Neil, her majesty's envoy, has been compelled, by the refusal of his just demands, and by a systematic course of disrespect adopted towards him by the Persian government, to quit the court of the shah, and to make a public declaration of the cessation of all intercourse between the two governments. The necessity under which Great Britain is placed of regarding the present advance of the Persian arms into Afghanistan as an act of hostility towards herself, has also been officially communicated to the shah, under the express order of her majesty's government. The chiefs of Kandahar (brothers of Dost Mohammed Khan) have avowed their adherence to the Persian policy, with the same full knowledge of its opposition to the rights and interests of the British nation in India, and have been openly assisting in the operations against Herat. In the crisis of affairs consequent upon the retirement of our envoy from Kaubul, the governor-general felt the importance of taking immediate measures for arresting the rapid progress of foreign intrigue and aggression towards our own territories. His attention was naturally drawn, at this conjuncture, to the position and claims of Shah Shujah-ol-Mulk, a monarch who, when in power, had cordially acceded to the measures of united resistance

to external enmity, which were at that time judged necessary by the British government, and who, on his empire being usurped by its present rulers, has found an honourable asylum in the British dominions. It had clearly been ascertained, from the information furnished by the various officers who have visited Afghanistan, that the Barukzye chiefs, from their disunion and unpopularity, were ill-fitted, under any circumstances, to be useful allies to the British government, and to aid us in our just and necessary measures of national defence. Yet, so long as they refrained from proceedings injurious to our interests and security, the British government acknowledged and respected their authority. But a different policy appeared to be now more than justified by the conduct of those chiefs, and to be indispensable to our own safety. The welfare of our possessions in the East requires that we should have on our western frontier an ally who is interested in resisting aggression, and establishing tranquillity; in the place of chiefs ranging themselves in subservience to a hostile power, and seeking to promote schemes of conquest and aggrandisement. After a serious and mature deliberation, the governor-general was satisfied that pressing necessity, as well as every other consideration of policy and justice, warranted us in espousing the cause of Shah Shujah, whose popularity throughout Afghanistan had been proved to his lordship by the strong and unanimous testimony of the best authorities. Having arrived at this determination, the governor-general was further of opinion that it was just and proper, no less from the position of Maharajah Runjeet Singh, than from his undeviating friendship towards the British government, that his highness should have the offer of becoming a party to the contemplated operations. Mr. Macnaghten was accordingly deputed in June last to the court of his highness; and the result of his mission

has been the conclusion of a tripartite treaty by the British government, the Maharajah, and Shah Shujah, whereby his highness is guaranteed in his present possessions, and has bound himself to co-operate for the restoration of the shah to the throne of his ancestors. The friends and enemies of any one of the contracting parties have been declared to be the friends and enemies of all. Various points have been adjusted, which have been the subject of discussion between the British government and his highness the maharajah; the identity of whose interests with those of the Company has now been made apparent to all the surrounding states. A guaranteed independence will, upon favourable conditions, be tendered to the Amcers of Scinde; and the integrity of Herat, in the possession of its present ruler, will be fully respected; whilst, by the measures completed or in progress, it may reasonably be hoped that the general freedom and security of commerce will be promoted; that the name and just influence of the British government will gain their proper footing among the nations of central Asia; that tranquillity will be established upon the most important frontier in India; and that a lasting barrier will be raised against hostile intrigue and encroachment. His majesty Shah Shujah-ol-Mulk will enter Afghanistan surrounded by his own troops, and will be supported against foreign interference and factious opposition by a British army. The governor-general confidently hopes that the shah will be speedily replaced on his throne by his own subjects and adherents; and when once he shall be secured in power, and the independence and integrity of Afghanistan shall be established, the British army will be withdrawn. The governor-general has been led to these measures by the duty which is imposed upon him of providing for the security of the British crown; but he rejoices that, in the discharge of his duty, he will be enabled to assist in restoring the

union and prosperity of the Afghan people. Throughout the approaching operations, British influence will be sedulously employed to further every measure of general benefit, to reconcile differences, to secure oblivion of injuries, and to put an end to the distractions by which, for so many years, the welfare and happiness of the Afghans have been impaired. Even to the chiefs, whose hostile proceedings have given just cause of offence to the British government, it will seek to secure liberal and honourable treatment, on their tendering early submission, and ceasing from opposition to that course of measures which may be judged the most suitable for the general advantage of their country.' (Signed) W. H. MACNAGHTEN, secretary to the Indian government. Mr. Macnaghten was at the same time directed to assume the functions of envoy and minister on the part of the Anglo-Indian government, at the court of Shah Shujah; captain Burnes was named as an employé under the envoy; lieutenant Todd was appointed military secretary to the envoy; lieutenants Eldred Pottinger and R. Leech, and Mr. P. B. Lord, a surgeon, were to go as political assistants to the envoy; lieutenant E. R. Conolly was to command the envoy's escort; and Mr. G. Berwick was to act as his excellency's surgeon.

The Dost was infuriated on hearing of the resolution of the governor-general to dethrone him, although, from the accusations contained in the proclamation, he could have expected nothing less. But one account states that captain Burnes had already stipulated to pay him 30,000*l.*, which he had agreed to use in an armament against the Persians, though there was a blood-feud between himself and Shah Kamran of Herat—the latter having instigated, and with his own hand helped in, the murder of Futtah Khan, the Dost's eldest brother. 'I will forget the blood-feud,' said the Dost to Burnes, 'and march with my best troops to Kamran's re-

lief, provided I am shielded from the anger of Persia whom I have rejected, and from all attacks of the Sikhs in my absence, and that you acknowledge me ameer of Kaubul.' Captain Burnes was with the Dost at Kaubul when news of the proclamation for his deposition reached that capital; and, drawing his sword in presence of the envoy, he exclaimed fiercely, 'With this sword have I won my kingdom, and by God's help with the same will I maintain it, in spite of the governor-general!' The ameer, however, was dethroned, and Shah Shujah restored, as shown in the Kaubul history; and lord Auckland, on accomplishing the latter, was raised to the dignity of an earl.

It must not be omitted, that, while the expedition to cross the Indus, for the purpose of carrying out the Kaubul scheme, was organizing, the conduct of Nepaul attracted the especial attention of the governor-general. To the eastward of Oude, and along its entire frontier, are stretched those territories which were ceded by lord Bentinck to Nepaul after the last war with that power. Such an act of grace, when the governor-general's foot was upon their necks, seems to have been regarded as an infallible proof of weakness in the conqueror and his Anglo-Indians, by the Nepaulese. His lordship gave them a very important tract of ground on the plains, in place of circumscribing their territory to their hills; and he left them in possession of many forts, which it had cost the British numerous lives to gain. He moreover permitted them to have a standing army of 15,000 men—they having no power against which to employ their troops, save Great Britain; since they acknowledge vassalage to China in their rear, and have none but their own vassals and the Anglo-Indians in front, and on either flank. The consequence was that lord Auckland saw the Nepaulese, when he was arranging the crossing of the Indus, ready with 45,000 men, and 100 pieces of ordnance, to pounce upon our rich

provinces of Tirhoot, Purneah, and Gorruckpore; and had not the news arrived of the raising of the siege of Herat by Persia, which enabled the governor-general to keep half his Kaubul force back in reserve, the 'mountain-tiger of Nepaul' would have speedily ravaged those beautiful countries. As it was, he burned, after sacking, several of our frontier villages; and the vassal of China continually sat watching on his hill-tops for any mischief to our arms in the Celestial Empire during the late war,—with the will, and unfortunately the ability, to do us serious injury. After the death of Runjeet Singh, 1839, and of his son Kurruck, Nao Nihal, the next Sikh ruler, entered into an alliance with Nepaul; and that power was once more prepared to assail the Anglo-Indian territory. The accidental death, however, of Nao Nihal rendered needless the march of 20,000 men, whom lord Auckland had got ready against the project of Nepaul; since the new Sikh chief, Shere Singh, was in every way inclined, for his own security, to court the British.

In 1839 circumstances induced an investigation by the governor-general into the ordnance force of the Nawab of Kurnoul, one of the petty friendly independent Indian princes; when his *zenana* (or *hareem*—the women's apartments) was found a perfect armoury. There were discovered, concealed in various ways underground, and in godowns, whose doors and entrances had been built up, 500 effective pieces of artillery, evidently constructed by European founders. A great many muskets, pistols, and swords, were turned up in the search; heaps of cartridges ready to be filled, also fuses, fire-balls, slow matches, and a large store of sulphur, rosin, and fine charcoal for gunpowder; in short, every material required to constitute a large and most valuable arsenal. The conclusion drawn from the development was, that the Nawab's preparations belonged to a plot for

a general rising on the part of the native chiefs throughout Hindustan against the power of England. At the fitting time, the Kurnoul artillery, it was thought, would have been united to other secret accumulations; and at last a sanguinary attempt would have been made to subvert the sovereignty of the British. After a severe conflict, the whole collection was captured by the English, the Nawaub taken prisoner, and his son appointed his successor under British surveillance. The Nawaub's subsequent history is a melancholy one. Influenced by the power of Christian truth during his honourable incarceration, he went frequently to divine service in the chapel of the fortress in which he was placed—ostensibly as a spectator, but in fact as a worshipper; and his attendants having in vain remonstrated with him on the subject, one of them, while he was, on a subsequent occasion, in the act of prayer to the only true God at the altar of the chapel, stabbed him near the heart, of which wound he died in a few hours, July, 1840, declaring his innocence as to any design against the English, and recommending his son and state to their protection.

Sher-e Singh came to the throne of Lahore in January, 1841, with his best inheritance, the Panjaub, in insurrection, and lord Auckland has been blamed for not aiding him to subdue his rebel chiefs, for which he could have obtained, in return, the fertile territories about Peshawur, and some on our side the Sutlej, to the manifest strengthening of the British frontier. On the departure of the English force from Calcutta for China, the Belúches, under Nusseer Khan, rose in Scinde; and the fortresses of Khelat and Dadur fell to the rebels. But the English recovered them, and put down the insurgents, (who subsequently put themselves under British protection,) November, 1840. In October, 1841, the restless Boa of the state of Burmah, Tharawadi, made a boastful military procession to Rangoon, to show

what he would try against the English, should they meet great reverses in China; knowing that their best forces were occupied there and in Kanbul. The ex-king, his brother, whom he had dethroned, accompanied him; and their majesties were conveyed, on landing, in a splendid car to the palace; having several gilt vehicles following, filled with the ladies of the court, and the road being on both sides lined by well-appointed, and in some instances, gorgeously apparelled, troops. Six elephants preceded the kings, each accompanied by 100 musketeers, fifty spearmen, and twenty men bearing banners and gilt standards; and the troops closing the procession had with them 100 pieces of artillery, ready for service. The naval part of the force consisted chiefly of gunboats, from thirty to seventy tons each. A British armament (in steam vessels) was despatched without delay to Moulmein by lord Auckland, in remembrance of his former error, to ascertain the meaning of such a display; but Tharawadi declared he meant peace, and only wished to see the treaty concluded at Yadoboo performed to the satisfaction of both English and Burmese.

The probability of the supplies of China tea being stopped by the contest with that power, induced British speculators to try tea-growing in Assam; and in the autumn of 1841 (Dr. Lum Qua, a Chinese Christian of high reputation, having undertaken the superintendence of the plantations) a very large shipment of excellent tea of Assam produce was made for England, in the autumn of 1841. The contest in China, begun under lord Auckland's auspices, 1840, (see *War with China*,) and the more unfortunate one of Kanbul, were left to be concluded by his successor, lord Ellenborough; to whom he bequeathed the government, in the autumn of 1841, not as he received it—in amity, with its neighbours, its provinces prosperous, and its exchequer full—but with war on all sides, a

tangled policy, and an empty treasury.

Edward Law, lord Ellenborough, arrived at Calcutta as the successor of lord Auckland, in February, 1842. Having been president of the Board of Control in England, and chairman of the lords' committee on 'East India Produce,' he might be supposed fully acquainted with the wants of the Anglo-Indian empire. His first proceeding was necessarily connected with the force sent out at the juncture of his arrival, to relieve our beleaguered troops in Kaubul. To facilitate orders, and to keep his designs more secret than could be the case were his instructions to emanate from Calcutta, his lordship quitted that capital for Allahabad; and there, in May, he commenced the levy of an army of observation, to prevent any sudden rising of the Moslem princes, who were all too watchful of Kaubul events, not to require over-aweing. We must keep in view that the votaries of the Islam cordially hate the followers of the Gospel; and the Indian Mohammedan princes have two additional grounds for disliking the Anglo-Indian government—first, because it has superseded their own, and secondly, in that they are in alliance with 'the heretical Sikhs'—from whom, the sworn enemies of their faith, they are religiously bound to recover the Punjaub, the Moslem holy-land of the East. The extraordinary success of the Anglo-Indian and British arms in both China and Kaubul in the summer of 1842, is recorded in the two articles of 'Kaubul under Shah Shùjah-ol-Mulk,' and 'The War with China, 1840;' and here it is only necessary to give the governor-general's proclamation to 'all Asia,' when the British troops, to avenge the calamities of the previous year, had destroyed the strongholds of Afghanistan, and reentered its capital, Kaubul. The 'wisdom of the step no Englishman in his senses could question; and we give the announcement entire, as the best excuse which

can be offered to the world for the folly of our interference in Kaubul affairs. 'The government of India directed its army to pass the Indus, in order to expel from Afghanistan a chief believed to be hostile to British interests, and to replace upon his throne a sovereign represented to be friendly to those interests, and popular with his former subjects. The chief believed to be hostile became a prisoner, and the sovereign represented to be popular was replaced upon his throne; but, after events which brought into question his fidelity to the government by which he was restored, he lost by the hands of an assassin the throne he had only held amidst insurrections, and his death was preceded and followed by still existing anarchy. Disasters unparalleled in their extent, unless by the errors in which they originated, and by the treachery by which they were completed, have in one short campaign been avenged upon every scene of past misfortune; and repeated victories in the field, and the capture of the cities and citadels of Ghuzni and Kaubul, have again attached the opinion of invincibility to the British arms. The British army in possession of Afghanistan will now be withdrawn to the Sutlej. The governor-general will leave it to the Afghans themselves to create a government amidst the anarchy which is the consequence of their crimes. To force a sovereign upon a reluctant people would be as inconsistent with the policy as it is with the principles of the British government, tending to place the arms and resources of that people at the disposal of the first invader, and to impose the burden of supporting a sovereign without the prospect of benefit from his alliance. The governor-general will willingly recognise any government approved by the Afghans themselves, which shall appear desirous and capable of maintaining friendly relations with neighbouring states. Content with the limits nature appears to have assigned to its

empire, the government of India will devote all its efforts to the establishment and maintenance of general peace, to the protection of the sovereigns and chiefs its allies, and to the prosperity and happiness of its own faithful subjects. The rivers of the Punjab and the Indus, and the mountainous passes and the barbarous tribes of Afghanistan, will be placed between the British army and an enemy approaching from the west, if indeed such an enemy there can be, and no longer between the army and its supplies. The enormous expenditure required for the support of a large force, in a false military position, at a distance from its own frontier and its resources, will no longer arrest every measure for the improvement of the country and of the people. The combined army of England and of India, superior in equipment, in discipline, in valour, and in the officers by whom it is commanded, to any force which can be opposed to it in Asia, will stand in unassailable strength upon its own soil, and will for ever, under the blessing of Providence, preserve the glorious empire it has won, in security and honour. The governor-general cannot fear the misconstruction of his motives in thus frankly announcing to surrounding states the pacific and conservative policy of his government. Afghanistan and China have seen at once the forces at his disposal, and the effect with which they can be applied. Sincerely attached to peace for the sake of the benefits it confers upon the people, the governor-general is resolved that peace shall be observed, and will put forth the whole power of the British government to coerce the state by which it shall be infringed.

‘Simla. ELLENBOROUGH.’

When the Kaubul army, under generals Pollock, Nott, and M’Cas-kill, had made good its voluntary retreat to the Sikh territory, and was about to cross the Indus into Hindustan, November 6th, the governor-general issued a notice of his inten-

tion to release Dost Mohammed, the zenana of Ukhbar Khan, and such Afghan chiefs as had become British prisoners in the late contest; provided only that they attended him in durbar at his camp at Ferozepore (whither he had removed from Simla,) on a certain day, to receive their dismissal. His lordship then set forth a proclamation in his usual high-flown diction, adopted probably (though we think hardly in good taste) to suit the ears of Orientals, announcing to the Hindûs his intention of restoring to their ancient situation in Guzerat, the sandal-wood gates of the temple of Somnauth. We cannot but consider that simplicity, and the avoidance of inflated expressions, both of sentiment and judgment, best suit the subject-matter of all declarations of authority; and however eastern nations may rejoice in startling appeals to the senses, by hyperbolical allusions to the things of nature or of art, they never, save they are actually Chinese, indulge in bombast.

‘Our victorious army bears the gates of the temple of Somnauth in triumph from Afghanistan; and the despoiled tomb of sultan Mahmud looks upon the ruins of Ghuzni. The insult of 800 years is at last avenged! The gates of the temple of Somnauth, so long the memorial of your humiliation, are become the proudest record of your national glory—the proof of your superiority in arms over the nations beyond the Indus. To you, princes and chiefs of Sirhind, of Rajwarra, of Malwa, and Guzerat, I shall commit this glorious trophy of successful war. You will yourselves, with all honour, transmit ‘the gates of sandal-wood’ through your respective territories, to the restored temple of Somnauth. The chiefs of Sirhind shall be informed at what time our victorious army will first deliver the gates of the temple into their guardianship, at the foot of the bridge of the Sutlej. My brothers, and my friends: I have ever relied with confidence upon your

attachment to the British government. You see how worthy it proves itself of your love, when, regarding your honour as its own, it exerts the power of its arms to restore to you the gates of the temple of Somnauth, so long the memorial of your subjection to the Afghans. For myself, identified with you in interest and in feeling, I regard, with all your own enthusiasm, the high achievements of that heroic army, reflecting alike immortal honour upon my native and upon my adopted country. To preserve and to improve the happy union of our two nations, necessary as it is to the welfare of both, is the constant object of my thoughts. Upon that union depends the security of every ally, as well as of every subject, of the British government, from the miseries whereby, in former times, India was afflicted. Through that alone has our army now waved its triumphant standards over the ruins of Ghuzni, and planted them upon the Balla Hissar of Kaubul! May that Good Providence, which has hitherto so manifestly protected me, still extend to me its favour, that I may so use the power now intrusted to my hands, as to advance your prosperity, and secure your happiness, by placing the union of our two countries upon foundations which may render it eternal!

We are too conscious of the good sense of his lordship, which prompts him not to persecute the poor Hindûs for their attachment to a false and idolatrous faith, whose foundation dates almost from the dispersion at Babel, to join with the English dissenters in the hue and cry they have raised against him, because of what they interpret to be a barefaced sacrifice to the idol Jagganâthâ; but we must confess it would have been well if the gates had been brought away with less noise. About 15,000,000 of the best-disposed British subjects in India are Mohammedans (many of whom serve among the native troops, and make especially excellent cavalry soldiers), who, in the spirit of the

Islam, regard the desecration of Moslem tombs as the most intolerable injury that can be inflicted by those of another creed on the faith of the prophet; while, on the other hand, the Hindûs themselves know nothing whatever of the tradition of the gates, it being referred to by none of their historians. Again, there is an absurdity in bringing back these trophies to the place whence they were carried off (at a period so far back as the reign of our Edward the Confessor), since that place is now Moslem, not Hindû; and a temple must be built, and a population of Hindû worshippers must be collected in the heart of a now entirely Mohammedan country, before the gates of Somnauth can once more find a post of rest. It is a question, too, whether it be generous, now that we, the modern conquerors of Hindustan, have, in subjugating the Hindûs, subjugated also their ancient conquerors, the Moslims, to display our superiority over the latter, when they are submitting in earnest and, in the main, cheerfully, to our yoke.

As historians, we think the affair of the Somnauth gates a matter of sufficient interest to warrant our introducing here some little account of the temple whence they were abstracted, &c.

At page 454 of our first volume, it is shown that Mahmud of Ghuzni's most remote and last expedition into Hindustan (being the twelfth he had made thither,) was to Guzerat, 1025. The remnant of the temple of Somnauth, we may premise, stands on the southern extremity of the small peninsula formed by the province of Guzerat, close to the more modern town of Patan, called usually Somnat Patan, in the vicinity of the small seaport of Verawul. At the period of Mahmud's rule at Ghuzni, this temple was one of the most celebrated places of Hindû worship, both on account of its alleged superior sanctity, and its therefore undoubted wealth; and it at once offered to the Moslim an easy means

of repaying himself the vast cost of all his expeditions. 'In the middle of the month of Ramzan, in the year of the Hijra 415 (1025), the Mohammedan army (writes the Persian, Ferishtā,) reached the city of Multan; and as a great desert lay before them, the king gave orders for the troops to provide themselves with several days' water and provisions, as also with provender for their horses, besides which, 20,000 camels were laden with supplies. Having passed the desert, the army reached the city of Ajmeer. Here, finding the rajah and inhabitants had abandoned the place rather than submit to him, Mahmud ordered it to be sacked, and the adjacent country to be laid waste. Conceiving the reduction of the fort of Ajmeer would occupy too much time, he left it unmolested; and proceeding on his expedition, took by assault some smaller forts on the road, till at length he arrived at Nehrwalla, a frontier city of Guzerat, which was evacuated on his approach. Mahmud, taking the same precautions as before, by rapid marches reached Somnauth without opposition. Here he saw a fortification on a narrow peninsula, washed on three sides by the sea; on the battlements of which appeared a vast host of people in arms, who making a signal for a herald to approach, they proclaimed to him that their great idol, Somnat, had drawn the Mohammedans thither to blast them in a moment, and to avenge their destruction of the gods of India. In the morning the Mohammedan troops, advancing to the walls, began the assault. The battlements were in a short time cleared by the archers, and the Hindūs, astonished and dispirited, crowded into the temple, and prostrating themselves in tears before the idol, prayed for assistance. The Mohammedans having seized this opportunity, applied their scaling-ladders and mounted the walls, shouting aloud, 'Alla akhbar!' (God is great!) The Hindūs, urged by despair, returned to the defence of the works, and made so spirited a

resistance, that the Mohammedans, unable to retain their footing, and wearied with fatigue, fell back on all sides, and were at length obliged to retire. Next morning the action was renewed; but as fast as the besiegers scaled the walls, so fast were they hurled down headlong by the besieged, who now seemed resolved to defend the place to the last. Thus the labours of the second day proved even more unsuccessful than those of the first. On the third day an army of idolaters having arrived to reinforce the garrison, presented itself in order of battle in sight of the Ghuzni camp; and Mahmud, determined to prevent this attempt to raise the siege, and having ordered a party to keep the garrison in check, himself engaged the enemy in the field. The battle raged with great fury; victory was long doubtful, till two Indian princes, Brahma Dew and Dabishleem, with other reinforcements, joined their countrymen during the action, and inspired them with fresh courage. Mahmud at this moment, perceiving his troops to waver, leaped from his horse, and prostrating himself before God (Mahmud's constant practice in his expeditions, to inspire his troops with a belief that his was a war of religion, to destroy idolatry, and to spread the 'true' faith—the Islam), implored his assistance. Then mounting again, he took Aboul Husun, the Circassian (one of his generals), by the hand, by way of encouragement, and advanced on the enemy. At the same time he cheered his troops with such energy, that, ashamed to abandon their king, with whom they had so often fought and bled, they with one accord gave a loud shout, and rushed forwards. In this charge the Moslems broke through the enemy's line, and laid 5000 Hindūs dead at their feet. The rout became general. The garrison of Somnauth, beholding this defeat, abandoned the defence of the place, and issuing out at a gate towards the sea, to the number of 4000, embarked in boats, intending to proceed to the island of

Serendeepe or Ceylon (the Moslem historian here, in ignorance of Indian geography, mistaking 'the port of the Deeb' or isle of Dew, then belonging to the Daby dynasty, for Ceylon). This manœuvre did not escape the king; who secured some boats left in a neighbouring creek, manned them with rowers, and some of his best troops, and pursued the enemy; on which occasion he took and sunk some of their flotilla, while a part only escaped. Having now placed guards round the walls and at the gates, Mahmud entered Somnauth, accompanied by his sons, and a few of his nobles and principal attendants. On approaching the temple, he saw a superb edifice built of hewn stone. Its lofty roof was supported by fifty-six pillars, curiously carved, and set with precious stones. In the centre of the hall was Somnat, a stone idol, five yards in height, two of which were sunk in the ground. The king, approaching the image, raised his mace, and struck off its nose. He ordered two pieces of the idol to be broken off and sent to Ghuzni, that one might be thrown at the threshold of the public mosque, and the other at the court-door of his own palace. These identical fragments are to this day, now 600 years ago, to be seen at Ghuzni. Two more fragments were reserved to be sent to Mecca and Medina. It is a well-authenticated fact, that when Mahmud was thus employed in destroying this idol, a crowd of Brahmins petitioned his attendants, and offered a quantity of gold, if the king would desist from further mutilation. His officers endeavoured to persuade him to accept of the money; for they said that breaking one idol would not do away with idolatry altogether; that, therefore, it could serve no purpose to destroy the image entirely; but that such a sum of money given in charity among true believers, would be a meritorious act. The king acknowledged there might be reason in what they said, but replied, that if he should consent to such a measure,

his name would be handed down to posterity as 'Mahmud the idol-seller,' whereas he was desirous of being known as 'Mahmud the idol-destroyer;' he therefore directed the troops to proceed in their work. The next blow (assuredly a capital *hit*) broke open the belly of Somnat, which was hollow, and discovered a quantity of diamonds, rubies, and pearls, of much greater value than the amount which the Brahmins had offered; whereby the Brahmins were wholly outwitted by the Afghan, to their sensible loss. The author of the Hubeeb-oos-Seer relates, from other authorities, that Somnat was the name of the idol; but he is contradicted by sheik Fureed-ood-Deen Attar, who observes, that 'the army of Mahmud found in Somnauth the idol whose name was Nat.' I have, however, inquired on this subject, and learn, that Soma was the name of the prince after which the idol Nat was called. Nat signifies, among the Hindûs, lord or chief, and is rendered applicable to idols. Thus we have 'Jugnat,' signifying the lord of the creation, to whom divine honours are offered up. In the time of eclipses, we are told, that from 200,000 to 300,000 worshippers used to frequent this temple, and that the different princes of Hindustan had bestowed in all 2000 villages, the revenues of which were applied to maintain its priests. This revenue was independent of other costly presents received from all parts of the empire. It was customary also for those idolaters to wash Somnat twice daily with fresh water from the Ganges, though that river is above 1000 miles distant. Among the spoils of the temple was a chain of gold, weighing 200 muns (4000 lbs.), which hung from the top of the building by a ring; it supported a great bell, which called the people to worship. Besides 2000 Brahmins, who officiated as priests, there belonged to the temple 500 dancing women, 300 musicians, and 300 barbers to shave the devotees before be-

ing admitted to the sanctum; and it was even usual for the princes of Hindustan sometimes to devote their daughters to the service of the temple. The king of Ghuzni found in this temple a greater quantity of jewels and gold than it is thought any royal treasury ever contained before. In the Zein-ool-Massir it is related that there were no lights in the temple, except one pendant lamp, which, being reflected from the jewels, spread a bright gleam over the whole edifice. Besides the great idol above-mentioned, there were in the temple some thousands of small images, wrought in gold and silver, of various shapes and dimensions.

Such is the account of Ferishtā, written about A. D. 1640; and it is a remarkable circumstance, and one which will not escape the notice of the reader, that no mention is here made of the *gates* of the temple; neither is any thing said about them in any other part of the work, or by Abul Fazil, in the 'Ayeen Akberry,' either in describing the place, alluding to Mahmud's victory, or in the account of Ghuzni.

After Mahmud's invasion, the province of Guzerat remained under the government of Hindu princes for some time, but finally passed under the authority of the great Moslem government of Hindustan. Guzerat thenceforward remained a Moslem state until the reign of Firoz Toghlek, of Delhi, A. D. 1380, when it was formed into a separate kingdom by Muzaffur Shah; and there is perhaps no province of India wherein Islamism has taken a stronger hold, or where, in the present day, the members of that faith form so large a proportion of the inhabitants of the country, or hold so dominant a position. During the last-named period of Moslem rule in Guzerat, the present town of Patan, before-mentioned, was founded, close to the site of the old town of Somnauth, and the 'sacred temple,' according to Mohammedan usage, was converted into a Moslem mōsque—a dome and mi-

nares having been erected, to give it the ordinary character of the places of worship dedicated to the Islam. In the same way, Mohammed II., on his conquest of Constantinople, converted the Christian church of St. Sophia into a Moslem fane.

At what precise period the temple of Somnauth was so metamorphosed, has not been recorded; but we read in Ferishtā's history of the Mussulman family of Guzerat, that Muzaffur Shah, the founder of the family, marched against Somnauth. (he so spells it) A. D. 1395, 'where, having destroyed *all* the Hindū temples which he had found standing, he built mosques in their stead; and leaving learned men for the propagation of the faith, and his own officers to govern the country, he returned' to the other part of Guzerat, wherein he had established his sovereignty. From this we may infer that the grand temple had already been converted into a 'musjid,' and that it by that means escaped demolition. From this its second change of religious application (for there seems to be little doubt, from its structure and ornaments, that it was originally, like many other sacred places of note in India, a Buddhist temple,) it gradually fell into decay; and it has been only known of late as an interesting ruin. Lieutenant Postans, of the Bombay engineers, thus describes its present condition (in the Journal of the Asiatic Society, October, 1832):—

'Old Patan is built upon a projection of the mainland, forming the southern point of the small port and bay of Verawul. The road from the latter to the ancient city lies immediately on the shore of this bay, and, for a distance of about a mile from the walls on the western side, passes through an extensive Moslem burying-ground: amongst the tombs are some rich and picturesque ruins. The walls of Patan, in the form of an irregular square, enclose a space somewhat less than two miles (of six furlongs) in circumference, with two

gates and numerous square towers. The western front is washed by the sea; a ditch encompasses the other three sides. These fortifications which are high, and composed of uncemented square stones, are of unusual solidity; and the old city, with its massive walls and double gates, must formerly have been a place of considerable strength. The population of Patan is at present completely Mohammedan, and the place is under the management of an Arab jemadar, a deputy of the nawab of Junaghur. It is evident that the Mohammedan conquerors of Patan, in rebuilding the place, and substituting a population of their own creed for that of the Hindûs, have at the same time laboured to eradicate all traces of the religion of the latter from this city; but the visiter cannot fail to observe the essentially Hindu character of the whole place. The mosques, which are very numerous, appear to have been erected from the ruins of the Hindu temples; whilst the houses, in the ornaments, sculptures, &c., bear about them evidence of their material having frequently been derived from similar sources. The style of building in the gates and walls, the latter adorned at every corner with sculptures of Hindu divinities, proclaim at once to whom Patan was originally indebted for the magnificence still traceable through all the innovations of its conquerors. This city, as connected with the Somnauth temple, and the invasion of Saraustra by Mahmud, is one of considerable interest, and, as the former capital of an extensive country, deserves some inquiry into its early history; but of it, or its rulers, the Persian historians do not, that I can learn, give any account. I must, however, proceed to describe the renowned temple, the monument of Mahmud's intolerance, and one of the most interesting relics in the Saraustra peninsula. This celebrated shrine occupies an elevated site in the south-western corner of the city, overlooking the sea and close to the walls. In its present mutilated

state, I find it very difficult to convey any very distinct or correct idea of the temple; for although its original design and gorgeous style of architecture may still be traced in the complete ruin it presents, its general effect is likely to be better understood from an effect of the pencil, than the pen. The structure consists of one large hall in an oblong form, 96 feet in length, 68 feet at its extreme width, and 28½ feet high; from one end of which proceeds a small square chamber of sanctum. The centre of the hall is occupied by a noble dome, over an octagon of eight arches. The remainder of the roof is terraced, and supported by numerous pillars. There are three entrances, the sides of the building face to the cardinal points, and the principal entrance is on the eastern side. These doorways are unusually high and wide, in the Egyptian style, decreasing towards the top; and they add much to the effect of the building. Internally the whole presents a scene of complete destruction: the pavement is everywhere covered with heaps of stones, and rubbish; the facings of the walls, capitals of the pillars, in short, every portion possessing any thing approaching to ornament, having been removed or defaced by the destroyer. Externally the whole of the building is most elaborately carved and ornamented with figures, single, and in groups of various dimensions: many of these appear to have been of some size; but so laboriously was the work of iconoclasm carried on here, that of the larger figures scarcely a trunk has been left; whilst few, even of the most minute, remain uninjured. The front entrance is ornamented with a portico, and surrounded by two slender minarets; ornaments so much in the Moslem style, that I doubt if they belonged to the original building. The two side entrances, which are at some height from the ground, were gained by flights of steps: of these latter the remains only are to be traced. The whole space, for a con-

siderable distance around the temple, is occupied by portions of pillars, stones and fragments of the original building. Such is a brief sketch of the present appearance of the renowned Somnat, which, notwithstanding Mahmud's intolerant spoliation, must still prove an object of great interest to the lover of Indian antiquities. I must not omit to mention, as a proof of the wonderful solidity of this structure, that within a few years its roof was used as a battery for some heavy pieces of ordnance—with which the neighbouring port of Verawul was defended from the pirates who formerly infested this coast. Without pretending to an accurate knowledge of the peculiar features distinguishing the Buddhistical and Jain from Hindu sanctuaries, my impression, founded simply upon observation, is that the Somnat was originally a Buddhist temple, afterwards appropriated to the worship of Siva, and was probably thus found by Mahmud, at the period of its capture. In confirmation of the Linga having at some period received adoration here, I observed two Nandis outside, amongst the ruins: but in the style of architecture and ornament, (particularly the male and female figures,) it is in vain to look for any Hindu features, while in all points it agrees most accurately with the Buddhistical.

Such is the present condition of the first Buddhist fane, then Somnath temple, and lastly Moslem 'musjid,' situated as it is amid an exclusively Mohammedan population, to which the governor-general purposes to restore its 'gates,' and thus avenge the insult to the poor Hindus of eight centuries back. But though the proclamation announcing such intention might well have been less pompous, the object of lord Ellenborough is a beneficial one, and will probably be attained. He has conveyed to the minds of all classes of orientals, a firm conviction of our power, by the fact of bringing home these lumbering gates, over moun-

tains, rivers, and deserts, back to their supposed original site. We say 'supposed,' because it may be doubted if they were ever taken from the Guzerat fane; but such being the traditional belief among the Afghans, the effect upon the public mind in Kaubul and India is the same. Something of the kind was necessary in the peculiar circumstances of the British relations with Kaubul; and a mere paper proclamation would never have convinced the natives of Hindustan, that we had not been driven from Afghanistan by force of arms. Even the Moslem chief of Guzerat, called the Guicowar, is said to have seen the proclamation in this light.*

Although the various released chiefs, &c., were to have met at Ferozepore, to take leave of the governor-general, Dost Mohammed solicited a quiet departure; and lord Ellenborough, having acceded to his request, dispensed with the whole ceremonial. The court at Ferozepore thereupon gave itself up to a series of gay doings, while distributing their hardly-earned honours to the victorious troops which, under the command of general Pophock, had recrossed the Sutlej, and reached Hindustan in comparative safety; and balls, dinners, races, cricketings, parades, and the like, followed in rapid succession—interlarded with the more grave amusements of courts-martial on general Shelton and major Pottinger, and on colonel Palmer (for the surrender of Ghuzni), and captains Anderson, Troup, Boyd, Eyre, and Waller,—rather to find out the causes of the Afghanistan disasters, than to bring railing accusations against the surviving leaders. The 'illustrious garrison' of Jellalabad was received with becoming respect, as well as with triumphant welcome; the heroic lady Sale was by no means left unnoticed; and if the Maharajah, Shere Singh, the veritable lion of Lahore, was not among the lions of the governor-general's durbar, his son and prime minister (though a questionable diplomatist), the wary

Dhyan Singh, was in his lordship's camp, eating sweetmeats, and beholding, with mingled astonishment and delight, all sorts of feasting and reviews—the latter manifestly enhancing to a considerable degree his notions of British magnificence and power.

The calamities of 'the Kaubul interference' being thus happily terminated, the province of Scinde was again found plotting against the serenity of the Anglo-Indian government. It has been recently shown that the ameers, or rulers, of that Indian province were on the watch to take advantage of the occupation of the Anglo-Indian armies in Kaubul and China; but that their insurrectionary spirit was at length vigorously suppressed. The territory of Scinde is a flat and fertile region at the mouth of the Indus, and intersected by the numerous branches of that river. The ameers who hold it, are bold and turbulent chieftains, who were, until the late revolutions in the Durani kingdom, tributaries of Kaubul; and having shaken off that yoke, they have continually opposed themselves to the advancement of British interests. Hyderabad and Tatta are the largest towns of Scinde. On the close of the Kaubul and China wars, lord Ellenborough at once turned his attention to the commerce of our Indian state; and with a view to obtain for it facilities which must, sooner or later, benefit every Hindustanee government, he began with a determination to obtain a free navigation of the Indus,—that very sensible object of a portion of his predecessor's policy. A measure so necessary for securing the progress of civilization on the banks of that river was violently opposed by the Scindians; and when a demand was made (December, 1842) upon the ameers of Scinde for their assent to a treaty, whereby Kurrachee and Tatta, and a strip of land extending along the shore of the Indus, with the towns and forts of Sukkur, Bukkur, and Roree, and as far as their territory

reached, should be made over to the East India Company—without which, it seems, no security for a free navigation through Scinde could be obtained—those chiefs intimated their intention to oppose the arrangement in arms. Major Outram, who had been removed in November, 1842, from the British political agency at Hyderabad, was hereupon ordered to resume those functions, as his long knowledge of the Scindians and their rulers might prove advantageous to the commercial intentions of the English; while the marching towards Hyderabad of a large British force under sir Charles Napier, at once abated the eagerness of the ameers for war, and they agreed to the terms proposed. Several of the ameers, however, fled to the fort of Emaumghur, situated in a desert district, and there showed defiance, with 2000 Beluches, to the English; and sir Charles, on receiving intelligence of this breach of faith, resolved on making an expedition, with a light detachment, to the hostile spot. The main object of engaging in this perilous incursion was to show the Scindians the fallacy of the idea always cherished by them, that here they could at any time place themselves beyond our reach, and defy us so long as they could support themselves. The expedition quitted the main army on the 5th, and, after a most fatiguing march of 100 miles through the desert, reached its destination on the 12th of January, 1843. The troops were all reduced to commissariat rations on the third march, the general partaking of the same fare as the humblest soldier. They found Emaumghur strongly fortified by thick walls and well-placed flanking towers; which, if defended with ordinary skill or courage, might have offered a very formidable resistance. It had been abandoned in such haste, that a large quantity of grain, with some 15,000lbs. of gunpowder, had been left behind. The former was appropriated by the commissariat,—the latter, in so far as required, em-

ployed in blowing up the fortifications: these having been destroyed, the residue was exploded in heaps. The objects of the general having thus been accomplished, he prepared for his return on the 16th, and rejoined the army on Jan. the 21st. Major Outram, who had accompanied the expedition, quitted it while making its weary way through the desert on its return, and went directly to the camp of Meer Roostum at Khyrpoor; a leading ameer, whom he persuaded to go with him to sir Charles Napier, that person as well as himself being anxious to avoid occasion of bringing on actual conflict, or permitting the needless effusion of blood. The amcers, however, had resolved to decide the matter by force of arms; and the chief ground of complaint on their part is alleged to have been as follows. Along the banks of the river, in Scinde, extending up to its very edge, are vast hunting-grounds, invested permanently with wood or jungle, for the purpose of game preserves or hunting-grounds. These shikargurs, as they are called, have long been cherished with a fondness, and clung to with a tenacity, such as William Rufus manifested for the New Forest and its pleasures. The right of clearing a slip of territory all along the river was required, in addition to the free navigation of its waters, for the convenience of tracking, and this was such as to bid fair to annihilate these hunting-grounds; or if any were left, it seemed likely that the wood which constituted them would speedily find its way into the furnaces of our steamers. This was regarded as a hard exaction, and one more difficult than any of the other requirements to be complied with,—involving, as it did, the loss of the sports conceived essential to regal existence, and forming the last degrading badge of utter humiliation and subjection. The resolve, therefore, being war, and major Outram having been attacked on the 15th of February, while in the agency compound, a large inclosure, sur-

rounded by a low mud wall, and having in it a guard of an hundred men of her majesty's 22d, by 800 Beluches, headed by one or more of the Scinde amcers, sir Charles Napier removed from his encampment at about twenty miles up the river, and directed his march quickly upon Hyderabad. At Meeanee, close to the river Fullalie, (then dry,) nine miles from that capital, the Scindians and Beluches were found strongly posted across the line of march, to the amount of 22,000 men, with fifteen guns, on the 17th. Their right flank was protected by an extensive shikargur,—their left by another of less magnitude, with a village adjoining. Their infantry were in front, securely placed in the dry bed of the Fullalie, completely covered by the precipitous bank from the fire of the British, and in the most favourable position for matchlock practice. As the English troops advanced, the 22d taking the lead, a well-directed and destructive fire was poured in upon these latter, to which they could make no return; but so soon as the brink of the river channel was sufficiently neared to expose the Beluches to view, the matchlock was thrown aside, and the enemy, in impetuous masses, furiously charged down upon their assailants with sword and shield. The British behaved with dauntless bravery; but the enemy was possessed of the advantages of both numbers and position, and nothing but the intrepidity of the general (under God) could have insured the result that ensued. Sir Charles Napier, who led on the charge in person, seemed to hear, throughout the combat, a charmed life; and although in the hottest of the fire—being the especial object of the Scindian marksmen—he came off unharmed. Victory for three hours swayed to and fro; and for that space of time did the enemy's infantry bravely stand their ground (for the Scindians and Beluches are, unlike other Easterns, a most intrepid people), the British being all the

while unable to make good any position whence they might overlook them, or drive them out. At length the 9th cavalry succeeded in making a detour, and coming round by the back of the village, to the left, escaped the Fullalie, and took them in flank; while the Poonah irregular horse, by a similar movement, forced their way through the shikargur, and turned their position. The day was now to the British, the infantry's post was stormed, and the whole Scindian army dispersed and fled. It is certain that the courage and good conduct of the invading soldiery could not have been exceeded; and it is but fair to do justice to that of the enemy, who fought with extreme determination, and charged down upon the advancing columns of the British with the fury of the Scotch Highlanders of old, similarly to whom they are armed. The channel of the Fullalie was heaped up with the slain; 1000 dead were left upon the field, including six of the first class chiefs; and 4000 more were wounded, of whom many must afterwards have died of the extreme injuries received. The survivors had fled. Beluchee armies invariably disperse after an unsuccessful action; each chief with his followers returning to his own country, until their services may again be required. The British entered and burned their camp in the afternoon, and captured the whole of their guns, fifteen in number: their own casualties amounted to 256 killed and wounded, including nineteen officers, of whom six were killed. General Napier having sent forward a message to the amceers, that unless they surrendered, he would next day storm Hyderabad, Meer Roostum Khan, Meer Nusseer Khan, and Meer Wuller Mahomed of Khyrpoor, Meer Nusseer Khan, Meer Shahdad Khan, and Meer Hoossein Khan of Hyderabad, came that same evening into camp, and gave themselves up unconditionally as prisoners of war. The gates of the city were immediately thereafter put into sir Charles's

possession; and on the evening of the 19th, the general marched past Hyderabad, and encamped at the wall of the residency. This conflict, wherein 2800 British troops of all arms, with twelve pieces of artillery, gained a hard-fought victory over full 22,000 sturdy and well-trained Beluches, commanded by the Scinde amceers in person, must be regarded as one of the most brilliant actions which has occurred in India since the conflict of Plassy, under lord Clive (vol. ii. p. 517), which established the British power in Hindustan. The governor-general, on receiving intelligence of the victory, declared Scinde a British province, deposing the turbulent amceers; slavery was, by the same decree, forever abolished in Scinde; and the conquering general, sir Charles Napier, was constituted governor of the new district. More than a million sterling, in bullion, was found in the treasury at Hyderabad.

The following evidence was given by Jemadar Mookunjee Naick, of the 15th native infantry, to the Anglo-Indian government, concerning the treacherous attack on the British near Tatta by from 800 to 1000 Beluches, under certain Scinde amceers, on the 19th, 20th, and 21st February, 1843. 'On the morning of the 19th of February, 1843, about eleven A.M., a party of Beluches, consisting of about twenty-five horse and fifty foot, fell suddenly upon my party, when we were quietly cooking our dinners, without the slightest suspicion of any attack, or of any enemy being near us. The enemy rushed into the lines with loud shouts of "Deen," "Deen," "Alli," "Alli," and at once killed Mr. Barnes, the sub-conductor, and his wife, who were in their house close to the lines. On hearing the shouts and seeing the enemy, I called out to my men, as there was no possibility of "falling them in," to fire away from their houses, and that now was the time to acquit themselves like men.

'The sepoy immediately obeyed

my orders, and killed nine of the enemy at the first discharge, two of whom were chiefs, and one of whom I shot myself. The enemy upon this retreated from both sides of the huts, having killed two of my sepoy and wounded five others. As soon as they had retreated to a short distance, I fell in the detachment, and looked about for some defensible position; but seeing none, I ordered my men to take up the wounded, and, with our arms and ammunition only, we marched to a large boat which was moored to the bank, about thirty paces from our huts, of which we took possession with the consent of the tindel, "Buskoo," who was on board, and rendered us every assistance. Immediately we were all on board, I cut the cable and pushed off into deep water, under a very heavy fire of matchlocks. The enemy by this time amounted to at least 300, and their number was every moment increasing. In getting on board the boat, I had three more of my men wounded, and, but for the high sides of the boat, which sheltered us from the storm of bullets, we could not possibly have escaped. After leaving the bank, we floated up the river about half a cos, as the tide was rising, and anchored the boat in deep water, the Beluches keeping a heavy fire upon us from both banks. On seeing us get on board the boat, the Beluches seized another large cotra which had just arrived from Cutch, and having embarked about 200 men, pushed off in pursuit of us, but the cotra, after proceeding about 100 yards, grounded; the enemy then procured a smaller boat, similar to the one we were in, and pursued us in that; on seeing them coming, we weighed anchor and floated up in the Tatta direction, occasionally returning the enemy's fire, which was very heavy, both from the boat and the banks. When the tide turned we cast anchor; upon which the Beluches put out men to tow their boat up to us, upon which we fired upon the men who were towing, and thus

prevented their boat from approaching nearer to ours. The enemy then got out six jinjals from the cotra, and tried to sink us with them; but these had no effect, as they did not know how to use them. In this manner, advancing when the tide rose, and anchoring in deep water when it receded, we continued to fight incessantly for three days and nights. On the morning of the 22d, the enemy fled, and a banyan came on board our boat, and informed us that the English had taken possession of Hyderabad, and that the whole country had become ours.'

The jemadar reports that he had, for two or three days previous to the attack, observed bodies of men coming down the river and landing at Vikkur, and that he had inquired who they were, and was informed that they come down by order of the amcers to collect the grain which is collected annually on account of government; that he had doubted the truth of this, and had brought the assembly of these men to the notice of Mr. Barnes, but he had replied that there was no danger to be apprehended. On the morning of the attack the jemadar had again drawn Mr. Barnes's attention to the people collecting around the village; but the conductor had again assured him that he need not be under any apprehension. The jemadar states that the river boat in which he and his party fought was much injured by the enemy; the tindel should, therefore, be reimbursed for the loss sustained. Lord Ellenborough hereupon directed 100 rupees beyond the estimated damage (200 rupees) to be paid to the boat tindel; and he further declared the action in which it took so leading a part, to be 'one of the most gallant actions of which he had ever read.' One step of rank was also granted to the brave jemadar and his assistant sepoy.

The country of the Beluches, called Beluchistan, is quite independent of Scinde; but the amcers of the latter are of Beluchee origin, and

have always employed Beluches in their armies. The mountain region inhabited by the savage tribes of Cawkers, divides Beluchistan from Scinde. The Beluches, who are half Persians in language, are separated into three principal tribes: the Nharûs, who inhabit the mountains of Kohistan exclusively, and the Rhinds and Mughsees, who are settled in Kutch Gundava. They are all Moslems, of the Shiah form of faith.

The governor-general, having broken up his camp at Ferozepore, proceeded to Delhi, on a visit to 'the Great Mongul'; and the celebrated 'gates' were transferred to Agra, wherein they were to remain as trophies, until their final removal to their ancient site. The decease of the sovereign of Gwalior, Jhundû (or Junkojee) Rao Scindîâ, at the age of 27, on the 7th of February, 1843, without heirs, now occupied the attention of lord Ellenborough. His territories, worth between four and five millions, and in fact second only in Hindustan to those of the Company in extent and value, hereupon lapsed into the hands of the Anglo-Indian government, as representative of the emperor of Delhi, the lord paramount. At page 449 of this volume is given an account of the manner in which Jhundû Junkojee became possessed of the Gwalior throne; and, on the present occasion, the widow of Jhundû, a venerable little lady of *twelve* years, having been permitted by the governor-general to adopt a son, fixed upon a youth of the ripe experience which the yet smaller age of nine years supplies; and where wisdom's mature sits at the helm of affairs, doubtless the government of Gwalior will be as discreetly as vigorously managed. This new maharajah, rightly named Bhazeerut Rao, is the person nearest in blood to Jhundû; and the Bye (Bae), or wife of the late ruler, gave him, on the day of his proclamation (it being the custom, in many oriental states, to adopt a new title on coming to the musnud or throne),

the style and title of Jeeahjee Rao Scindîâ, just as his predecessor, Mootgut Rao, had been called 'Junkojee (or Jhundû) Rao Scindîâ.'

As the British relations with the extensive territories of Gwalior are of considerable importance, we shall subjoin a cursory view of them, together with a sketch of the events which succeeded the death of Dowlut Rao; as they may be taken as precedents for the course it will be incumbent on the Anglo-Indian government to follow, under the circumstances. The family of Scindîâ owe their origin to one of the Mahratta commanders under the Peishwa, during the early expeditions into Hindustan; Ranojee Scindîâ distinguished himself in the warfare with the emperor of Delhi, in 1738, received nearly half the conquests then made, for the support of his troops, and held them till 1750. His fourth son, by various accidents, became his successor, and a leader of renown in his operations against the British; with whom he entered into a treaty in 1781, which established his power as an independent prince of great influence in central India. He died at Poona in 1794, and was succeeded by his grand nephew and adopted son, Dowlut Rao Scindîâ, then only fifteen years old. Surji Rao Ghatgay, who became minister in 1796, was father of the Maharajah's wife, the Baeza Bae, and consequently of Hindoo Rao. He induced his son-in-law to enter the Mahratta confederation against the British, which was defeated by the brilliant operations of general Wellesley in the Deccan; and Scindîâ was reduced to the necessity of entering into a treaty of friendship and alliance, consisting of sixteen articles, ceding to the Company a considerable portion of territory, and very materially reducing the importance of Dowlut Rao. Other treaties followed and continued in force, until subsequent events, during the Pindaree and Mahratta campaigns of the marquis of Hastings, rendered it necessary to alter their tenour. Dowlut

Rao had continued friendly till 1813 or 1814; when he was seduced into opposing us by the negotiations of the Peishwa, which led him to hostile demonstrations. These were, however, speedily put an end to, and a new treaty made (November 9, 1817), by which Dowlut Rao agreed to co-operate in the war on the Pindarees, and by which considerable territories were exchanged on either side. It reduced the Maharajah from the position of a rival, jealous of our power and ready to head an opposition to our measures, into that of a chief endeavouring to avail himself of our name and authority to give system and organization to his own government, which was else on the eve of dissolution. Dowlut Rao died on the 21st of March, 1827, in his 48th year, after a reign of thirty-three years. Having no legitimate or adopted son, his widow, the Baeza Bae, assumed the sovereignty of the state, professedly as regent, her brother, Hindoo Rao, acting under her orders. The regent endeavoured soon after to insure the success of a plan she had formed for the adoption of a member of her own family, instead of one from the Scindia family, with whom was the right, and the voice of the chiefs and people of the country. This intention was not tolerated, and five boys were brought from the Deccan, and from among them was chosen Moogut Rao, a youth of eleven, who was shortly after married to Tara Bae, the youngest grand-daughter of the late Maharajah, and seated on the musnud, under the style and title of Maharajah Ali Jah Jhundu (or Junkojee) Rao Scindia Bahadur. From this time a series of struggles occurred between the Maharajah and his adopted mother, the former being anxious to shake off the surveillance of the latter, and she exceedingly loth to resign her power. The army having at last declared in favour of their young sovereign, the princess was obliged to fly, and subsequently took refuge in the British residency, where a shelter was

afforded her on condition of resigning the sovereignty and quitting the country. This was agreed on, and on the 13th of July, 1833, she quitted Scindia's territories, the Maharajah having been proclaimed on the 10th. She remained, however, in the neighbourhood, first at Dhoulpoor, and then at Agra, for some time. In 1837 an arrangement was made, by which, on condition of her proceeding to Jaumgaon, near Nassick, in the Deccan, she was to receive four lakhs annually, guaranteed by the British government. The opportunity was taken for pressing on the Maharajah the necessity of reforming his contingent; which was at length effected, and the troops placed on their present very efficient footing. In 1837 the wife of the Maharajah gave birth to a daughter, and a surreptitious attempt was made to substitute a boy but defeated. Tara Bae died in 1838, and her infant daughter shortly after. His highness subsequently married his surviving By, a child in years, sister of Tara Bhaee, and daughter of Jeswunt Rao Goorparah; and, after death, his body, according to the custom of his country, was committed to the flames, close to the chuttree of the Maharajah Dowlut Rao.

The district of Bundelkund, a division of the province of Allahabad, whose chief towns are Banda, Jaitpore, Bejour, Chatterpore, and Tehree, was greatly disturbed at the moment of the death of the ruler of Gwalior. The British connexion with the chiefs of Bundelkund originated in an arrangement concluded with the late Peishwa, December, 1803, by which he ceded to the Company territory of a certain value, which the governor-general was at liberty to select from those quarters of the province most contiguous to the English possessions, and the best suited to their convenience. In carrying this treaty into effect, arrangements were made with several chiefs on the frontier of the province, who were allowed to retain posses-

sion of the lands they held, on payment of a specified tribute; while agreements were, in like manner, entered into with other chiefs, omitting all mention of tribute. In general, the British have allowed these chiefs, on their subscription of engagements of allegiance and subjection, to govern their territory as they pleased; but occasionally, during the minority of the chief, or when, by misgovernment, the country has been thrown into disorder, the Anglo-Indian government has exercised its sovereignty by appointing a manager. The rajahs of Tehree and Jaitpore being resolved to run counter to British interests in January, 1843, forces were sent into Bundelkund, and most of the insurgents laid down their arms, and ceased plundering and burning down the villages of those chiefs remaining faithful to the English. The rajah of Jaitpore still lurked about, with a few adherents, in the neighbourhood of Bhagorah; and upon some of his people cutting the throat of a thannadar of one of the Company's villages, on January 24th, Bhagorah was destroyed by the British, and detachments under major Hepburn and others sent in pursuit of the rajah.

It was in March, 1843, that intelligence reached Bengal of the murder at Bokhara of lieut.-colonel Stoddart and captain Conolly, whose captivity is mentioned at page 671. The following is an authentic statement, by an Indian resident, of the circumstances of their case. 'Charles Stoddart and Arthur Conolly are no more! After a protracted confinement in a loathsome dungeon had so seriously impaired their health as to render their speedy dissolution nearly certain, it seems they were put to death at Bokhara. CHARLES STODDART distinguished himself at the very outset of life by his attainments at Sandhurst, where he carried off the first prizes in every department of knowledge and science studied at that institution; and, as the highest reward the government could

bestow, he was honoured with a commission in the Royal Staff corps. After serving with distinction in various parts of the globe, he was selected to accompany colonel Chesney's expedition to the Euphrates; and shortly after his return to England, he was attached to the suite of the British ambassador about to sail for Persia, as secretary of legation. In Persia, by his mental acquirements, his nobility of soul, his generous chivalry, aided by his commanding stature and soldierly bearing, he speedily won the esteem and regard of the king and people; and, with a view to placing before the aspiring young monarch some bright examples for imitation, he laboriously translated into the Persian language the lives of many of the most eminent public characters in ancient and modern times. On the invasion of Afghanistan by our army, he was despatched by sir J. M'Neil on a mission to the court of Bokhara; the principal object of which was to negotiate for the liberation of any Russian slaves that might be there lingering out a wearisome existence. This was indeed an employment well suited to one of his benevolent enthusiasm of character; and, regardless of all personal risks, he faithfully pleaded the cause of human suffering in the very presence of the tyrannical despot of the modern Bactria. The result was disastrous to himself, and useless to the victims whose cause he advocated. All attempts at reasoning, apart from any appeal to self-interest, was utterly thrown away upon a monster whose mind was debased to a level with the brutes, by habits of debauchery too gross and degrading to be named to Christian ears. Many days had not elapsed ere poor Stoddart's independent bearing having wounded the barbarian's pride, he was suddenly seized and consigned to a dark disgusting den, filled with vermin, filth, and noxious reptiles; where, besides suffering grievous bodily torments, he was exposed to every species of insult and

disgrace from the bigoted populace. It may not be generally known that Mohammed Ukhbar Khan was for many days a tenant of the same prison with him, but managed to effect his escape. He always spoke of Stoddart in terms of high admiration, and I really believe felt for him a genuine attachment. At length, a grave having been dug, Stoddart was placed within it, and told that his choice lay between being immediately buried alive, or pronouncing the *Kulima-i-Shuhadut*, or Mohammedan creed, adopting thenceforth the laws of the Islam for those of Christ. Weakened by long fasting and the sufferings he had undergone, and naturally shrinking from so horrible an alternative as that placed before him, let not us, his fellow-Christians, who have never ourselves been called upon to endure so trying an ordeal, be too ready to condemn our gallant countryman, if, for once, the love of life prevailed, and his strong mind gave way in circumstances where, perhaps, few would have been found to hesitate for a moment. His life was spared; and, having been clothed in a dress of honour, he was at once advanced by the fickle tyrant to a post of dignity and confidence. But his life was imbittered by remorse for what so many would deem a venial offence, but which his well-tutored mind, weighing the act in the scales of eternity, viewed in a far different aspect; and at a subsequent period, when the khan had suspected his adherence to the Islam, he held fast his profession, and was cast once more into his noisome dungeon. On my arrival at Kaubul in April, 1841, I opened a correspondence with this friend of my early days, and received from him a reply, which, for depth of feeling, manliness of sentiment, and liveliness of wit and fancy, was eminently characteristic of the writer's mind. At that time he was living in tolerable comfort, being in high favour with the khan, who had even consented to his leaving the country. Of this, he assured me, it was his in-

tention to avail himself shortly; his sole object in delaying his departure for a single day, being to forward the views of the British government, by acquiring valuable information, and extending the influence of our name. Hopes, alas! never to be realised. On the news of the Kaubul insurrection, and the successes of the Afghan rebels reaching the khan, Moslem bigotry at once prevailed over every other feeling, and poor Stoddart was a second time consigned to a miserable dungeon.

Let me now turn to ARTHUR CONOLLY. This officer's name has already become famous throughout the civilized world, from his most interesting personal narrative of an overland journey to India, *via* Russia, Persia, and Afghanistan. The same spirit of enterprise which he then exhibited in so favourable a light, animated and influenced him to the last. The situation of political assistant to his illustrious relative, sir W. Macnaghten, opened a fine field for his ambition; which, tempered as it was by a generous spirit of universal benevolence, continually prompted him to devise schemes for the moral amelioration of Toorkistan, into which country he was sent on a mission, and whence he, from time to time, forwarded to government most valuable and interesting information, illustrative of the manners, laws, and customs of the people, which it is to be hoped will ere long be laid before the public. He was diligently pursuing his investigation in the country of Kokan, when he received a flattering invitation from the khan of Bokhara to visit his capital, to be present at a feast. Ignorant of the unfavourable turn in our affairs at Kaubul, and anxious, of all things, to have a personal interview with colonel Stoddart, with whom he had been long in constant correspondence, he accepted an invitation which seemed so complimentary to our nation, little suspecting the black treachery that lurked beneath the surface. No sooner had he entered the Bokhara

territory than he was seized, and thrust into the dismal cell of which poor Stoddart was the forlorn occupant. Well was it for Arthur Conolly that he had long accustomed his mind to lean for support on the never-failing prop of Christian faith in every exigency. Well was it for Stoddart, that, in the hour of his greatest need, a friend should, in so unlooked-for a manner, have been raised up to sustain his drooping spirit, and animate him afresh for the fearful conflict between human frailty and Christian duty. That these two brethren in adversity were a mutual support and comfort to each other in circumstances of extraordinary suffering, was apparent from two letters received at Kaubul in the summer of 1842, by John Conolly (then a hostage in the house of Nuwab Zeman Khan), from his brother Arthur, which the latter had prevailed on one of his keepers to forward. In the first letter, captain Conolly mentioned that Stoddart and himself had then been eighty days without change of raiment, in the heated and deadly atmosphere of a small dark den that teemed with vermin. In his second and last letter they had been 120 days in a similar state. Stoddart, the noble and manly Stoddart, was described as wasted to a skeleton, his body almost naked, and covered with sores, into which he was perpetually digging his long overgrown nails, for relief against the noxious vermin that were literally *gnawing* his raw sides. They had both just risen from their knees, before despatching this last epistle, having committed their souls to God, in the full expectation that a very short time would probably terminate their sufferings. Shortly after general Pollock's arrival at Kaubul, reports were rife that Conolly had died a natural death; but this is now contradicted by the recent account received from sir John McNeil, by which it would appear that a more honourable fate was reserved for these two intrepid sops of Britain, even

that of sealing their testimony to the Christian faith, in the very stronghold of Mohammed, with their own blood. Instantly on the khan receiving intelligence of the fall of Kaubul once more to the British, now come to avenge the slaughter of their brethren, he ordered the two captives to prepare for death. Being led out for execution before the assembled populace of Bokhara, they were offered their lives, on condition of embracing the Moslem faith; and upon their nobly refusing to do so, and declaring their firm belief in the alone salvation of Christ, they were immediately beheaded by men with scymetars, as they stood. It certainly is to be lamented that a petty barbarian of central Asia should not be visited in his den, and made to feel for his unprovoked cruelty towards two such worthy British subjects.

The next matter of interest we have to notice is the unusual occurrence of the visit of a wealthy Hindù to England. It is deemed sinful by the native Indians to trust themselves as sojourners in the country of infidels; and much beloved and respected as is Dwarkanauth Tagore, a Hindù of the Brahmin caste, his departure for the British shores in 1842 was matter of great lamentation as well as wonder to his numerous friends and dependants. Dwarkanauth Tagore (properly Thakùr) succeeded at eighteen to his parents' large estates near Calcutta. His ancestors were among the supporters of British interests under lord Clive; and, glad of escaping from the intolerant domination of the Moslims, his great-grandfather relinquished both a part of his land and his family residence to the English, to enable them to erect the present fortress of Fort William, on the banks of the Hoogly. Lord William Bentinck, when governor-general, wished him, in return for his important aid in financial matters, and for his public spirit in inducing many of the Brahmin authorities to discountenance the *suttee*,

to accept the style and title of rajah, wherein the government agreed to support him; but he preferred the simple character of a Hindu merchant and banker. His wealth having vastly accumulated, and his disposition being highly generous and benevolent, he was resolved on regarding a trip to England as a religious voyage, undertaken to benefit his fellow-countrymen; since he calculated on ascertaining, by a personal investigation of the English character at home, the sources of those means which had contributed to render the British people so powerful abroad. His reception by queen Victoria and her royal consort, who condescendingly admitted him to the royal table, and by the nobility, gentry, and public bodies of the nation, both gratified the Hindu merchant in the extreme, and sent him back to India impressed with the most magnificent notions of the wealth, power, and civilization of the English—a greatness which he was complimentary enough to say he found arise 'from a strict in-born honour and faith, which constituted a Briton's mere word his oath and bond.' [May all our foreign friends think as well of us as Tagore; and may we study to preserve their good opinion by our Christian faithful adherence to treaties!] The Hindu merchant at length found himself once more safe on Indian ground, much to the joy, and more to the surprise, of his friends, who had thought some marked visitation of the wrath of Brahmā Seeva for so palpable a deviation from religious practices, would have prevented such a consummation; and, on reaching Calcutta, he thus wrote to one of his English friends: 'I landed here on the 4th (January, 1843) in good health and spirits, and found Calcutta just where I had left it, notwithstanding a hurricane and an earthquake. My reception by my friends, both native and European, has been every thing I could desire. The former have come about me literally in crowds; and though I have

some reason to suspect that the more rigidly orthodox among them would regard me as a heretic for the sins I had committed against Hinduism whilst away, yet even they have been most warm in their congratulations, most profound in their respect, and intensely curious to hear all about the wonders I have seen in my travels. This speaks volumes in favour of a man's acting up to his own convictions. My safe return has dispelled the apprehensions of those who feared that I, like my predecessor and friend Ram Mohun Roy, would fall a victim to my love of enterprise and a thirst for knowledge. But appearing as I have done in renewed vigour, and with a determination to visit Europe again, that I may enjoy still further the advantages which high civilization and cultivated society confer, I have shaken the prejudices of many, and set an example which will, at all events, be followed by not a few of the intelligent and less bigoted youth of this country.'

In closing our history of Anglo-India, we can only express our hope that the internal peace of that extraordinarily-augmented and strengthened colony will now be more regarded than its territorial aggrandisement. To consolidate what we have gained, and to make happy the naturally discordant Moslem and Hindu classes of inhabitants, should now be our main endeavour. The navigation of the Indus having been recently enforced by the strong hand, for the general advantage of Indian commerce, lord Ellenborough has but to establish annual fairs in certain inland towns, whereby marts would speedily arise, trade of every description be encouraged between our own and the neighbouring states, and the Indian nations soothed by finding that they were assuredly gaining in wealth and civilization through British exertions. This would offer to the Hindûs the strongest proof that, of their two classes of conquerors, the Christians, the last in order of time, were their best friends. And

here we must remind our readers of what is too often forgotten,—that Hindustan had been ruled by its native princes, all Hindûs, of the Brahmist faith, from a period antecedent to the reign of Alexander the Great (331 B.C.) till its first invasion by the Moslims, in the person of Mahmud of Ghuzni, A.D. 998, in the time of our Ethelred II. Then was the standard of the false prophet of the Islam first unfurled in the Punjab, hence styled 'the holy land' of the oriental Moslims; and Mahmud went on until, in 1025, all Hindustan acknowledged him liege-lord. The successors of Mahmud retained not his conquests; but a track had been marked out, by which the western Mohammedans, whether Turks or Tartars, constantly found their way eastward, until the Mongul division of the latter established a permanent sovereignty in the Indian peninsula, 1526, during the sway of our Henry VIII. It was in 1602 that some Christian English merchants first attempted a settlement in Hindustan, when Elizabeth reigned; but it was not until the time of George III., 1765, that the talents of lord Clive established the dominion of the British in India, as supreme over both Moslims and Hindûs, the conquerors and the conquered. The policy pursued by the Anglo-Indian government from the epocha in question, 1765, to the present day, a period of seventy-eight years, has been usually influenced by the consideration that the Hindûs are the aboriginal proprietors of the Indian peninsula, and ought therefore to be treated with more consideration than their conquerors, the Moslims; and hence every Hindû usage and law has been respected, as far as has been found consistent with a just regard for Mohammedan prejudices. Hence the restoration of the Somnauth gates. The Moslims, on the other hand, have full justice done them in all matters of legal arbitration; being allowed their own pleaders and judges in their own affairs, and their own

pleaders in litigating with the Hindûs or British. This is due to them, both as peaceful subjects and faithful soldiers; for among the native troops, the Moslims make a conspicuous figure for obedience and bravery. As respects the security of the Anglo-Indian empire, the Hindû population, it is allowed on all hands, will always unite with their Christian conquerors against their Mohammedan subjugators, should they ever combine to recover their lost power; the British dominion in the East resting, not on a mere *prestige*, but on public opinion,—the impression on the Hindu mind being clearly that the English dynasty is a true and faithful and supporting one, wholly opposed in character to the depressing and enslaving one of their ancient masters, the Moslims. We have endeavoured to show why no country under Mohammedan rule can rise very high in the scale of nations, at page 444. The Moslims themselves in our Anglo-Indian army acknowledge the faith and truth of their paymasters; and the certainty of receiving an honourable allowance when they retire from the service, induces them to fight cheerfully on the Christian side, even (as in the Afghan war) against men of their own faith. It is expected that lord Ellenborough will put the Indian army nearly on the same footing which it enjoyed before lord William Bentinck's reforms; and that the discipline of flogging for certain offences, which that governor-general abolished, will be revived. The moral character of the force has sensibly sunk, in the opinion of both officers and men, since the abolition.

We have been enabled to touch little upon the natural history of countries in this work; but we cannot conclude our records of Anglo-India without mention of a remarkable tree and a remarkable bird of Hindustan. Ancient writers have left us accounts of a tree of India which grows to a marvellous size, sometimes covering a circumference

of five acres, and capable of sheltering ten thousand men under its branches. This is no fable: the tree alluded to is the Banian, one of which is in itself a grove. It continually increases in size, and, contrary to other natural productions, seems to be exempt from decay; for every branch from the main body throws out its own roots, at first in small tender fibres, several yards from the ground, which continually grow thicker, until, by a gradual descent, they reach its surface, where, striking in, they increase to a large trunk, and become a parent tree, throwing out new branches from the top. These in time suspend their roots, and, receiving nourishment from the earth, swell into new trunks. A banian-tree, with many trunks, forms the most beautiful walks, vistas, and cool recesses, that can be imagined. 'I have spent,' says Mr. Forbes, 'many delightful days, with large parties, on rural excursions, under one tree, supposed by some persons to be that described by Nearchus, the admiral of Alexander the Great. High floods have at various times swept away a considerable part of this extraordinary tree; but what still remains is near two thousand feet in circumference, measured round the principal stem; the overhanging branches, not yet struck down, cover a much larger space; and under it grow a number of custard-apple and other fruit trees. The large trunks of this single tree amount to three hundred and fifty; and the smaller ones exceed three thousand; each of these is constantly sending forth branches and hanging roots, to form other trunks, and become the parents of future progeny. This magnificent pavilion affords a shelter to all travellers, particularly to the religious tribes of Hindûs, and is generally filled with a variety of birds, snakes, and monkeys; the latter have often diverted me with their antic tricks, especially in their parental affection for their young offspring, by teaching them to select their food, and to leap

from bough to bough. On a shooting party under this tree, one of my friends killed a female monkey, and carried it to his tent, which was soon surrounded by forty or fifty of the tribe; who, making a great noise, advanced to it in a menacing posture. On my friend presenting his fowling-piece, they retreated, and appeared irresolute; but one, who, from his age and station in the van, seemed the head of the troop, stood his ground, chattering and menacing in a furious manner; nor could any efforts less cruel than firing, drive him off. He at length approached the tent-door; when finding his threatenings were of no avail, ~~he~~ began a lamentable moaning, and, by every token of grief and supplication, seemed to beg the body of the deceased. On this it was given him. With tender sorrow he took it up in his arms, embraced it with every mark of extreme affection, and carried it off with a sort of triumph to his expecting comrades. The artless behaviour of this poor animal wrought so powerfully on the sportsmen, that they resolved never more to level a gun at one of the monkey race.' Under this same banian-tree, a great chief of the district used frequently to encamp on his excursions, in a magnificent style, having a saloon, dining-room, drawing-room, bed-chambers, bath, kitchen, and other accommodations, all in separate tents; while his carriages, camels, horses, guards, attendants, were all sheltered under its wilderness of shade. Indeed, during the march of an army, it has been known to give a covering to seven thousand men, without any inconvenient huddling.

The beautiful bird to which we have alluded is the Baya, which forms its nest in a very ingenious manner, by long grass woven together in the shape of a bottle, with the neck downwards, and suspended by the other end to the extremity of a flexible branch, the more effectually to secure the eggs and young brood from serpents, monkeys, and squirrels

(their most deadly enemy), and from birds of prey. These nests contain several apartments, appropriated to different purposes; in one, the hen performs the office of incubation; another, consisting of a little thatched roof, and covering a perch, without a bottom, is occupied by the male, who, with his chirping, cheers the female during her maternal duties. The Hindûs are very fond of these birds, and teach them to fetch and carry; and at the time when young women resort to the public fountains, their lovers instruct the baya to pluck the tica, or golden ornament from the forehead of their favourite, and bring it to their expecting master—a circumstance which holds a place in many an oriental sonnet.

The governors-general of Anglo-India have been: 1758, June, to Jan. 1760, colonel R. Clive; 1760, Jan. to July, J. L. Holwell; 1760, July, to Nov. 1764, H. Vansittart; 1764, Dec., to May 1765, J. Spencer; 1765, May, to Jan. 1767, lord Clive; 1767, Jan., to Dec. 1769, Harry Verelst; 1769, Dec., to April 1772, J. Cartier; 1772, April, to Feb. 1785, Warren Hastings; 1785, Feb., to Sept. 1786, sir J. Macpherson; 1786, Sept., to Oct. 1793, marquis Cornwallis; 1793, Oct., to March 1798, sir J. Shore; 1798, May, to July 1805, marquis Wellesley; 1805, July to Oct., marquis Cornwallis; 1805, Oct., to July 1807, sir George Barlow; 1807, July, to Oct. 1813, earl Minto; 1813, Oct., to Jan. 1823, earl of Moira (created marquis of Hastings); 1823, Aug., to April 1828, lord Amherst; 1828, June, to March 1835, lord William Bentinck; 1835, Aug., to Sept. 1841, lord Auckland; 1841, Sept., to the present time, lord Ellenborough.

TURKEY UNDER ABDUL MEDJID I. KHAN.—This prince, born April 19, 1823, succeeded his father, Mahmud II. Khan, July 1, 1839, at the early age of sixteen. On ascending the throne (of which he is the thirty-first possessor of the race and stock of Osman, Al Thaman, or Othman, founder of the Osmanlees, or Otto-

man Turks (see vol. i., 601), and the twenty-eighth since the fall of Constantinople to his nation), he expressed his intention of treading closely in his father's steps, so as accurately to carry out that enlightened Moslim's policy and plan of assimilating the Turkish people, in indifferent matters, to those of other European states. In this spirit, his military continued the costume of Christian soldiers, bells were allowed in the mosques and streets, fire-insurances, and so forth, were sanctioned. Mahmud II. had died at the moment that Constantinople itself was threatened by a march against it of the Egyptians, under the son of the rebellious pacha, Mehemet Ali. An appeal was in consequence made by the young sultan to his ancient ally, Great Britain; and that government instantly endeavoured to unite the members of the great European alliance to prevent an invasion, which, it was expected, would lead to the actual dismemberment of Turkey. France was the only one of the great powers that not only felt disinclined to support the Osmanlees, but threatened to make war on such as should attack Mehemet Ali; but, regardless of a great deal of Gallic hectoring, the combined British and Austrian fleets, in the autumn of 1840, blockaded the whole coast of Syria, of which the pacha had recently deprived the Porte, and in two brief months recovered possession of the country for the sultan, even threatening to bombard Alexandria if the pacha did not quietly and for ever give in his submission. An account of this celebrated expedition will be found at page 503. The British have since become considerable favourites in Turkey; and the consequent resort of the English to, and their welcome reception at, Constantinople, is gradually breaking down those barriers which have ever kept Christians strangers to the good and real society of the place. A proof has been afforded of the truth of our assertion by a recent proceeding of sir Strat-

ford Canning, the British minister at the Porte. In giving a grand ball, invitations were sent by his excellency, not only to Osmanlee ministers and public functionaries, but to their children. The fête commenced with a child's fancy ball; and while all the little Christians appeared in the usual disguisements of Greeks, Swiss, Spaniards, and Italians, such little Moslims of both sexes as were permitted to accept the invitation, went in their own varied attire—a masque in itself. The ball gave extraordinary pleasure to the parents of the Turkish children who were present; and there was great talk of the Osmanlees returning the compliment, and thus bringing on an unrestrained intercourse between Christians and Moslims throughout the capital. Although the Turkish government had looked with favour on the affairs of Servia at the period of the sultan's accession, even to the point of acknowledging that ancient Greek province almost free of the Porte, a jealousy so great arose, at the opening of the year 1843, of the power and views of prince Milosch, that Abdul Medjid issued a firman deposing him, and, in regulating the affairs of the country, declared him incapable of offering himself a candidate in a new election for the sovereignty. The emperor Nicolas of Russia, however, opposed the latter arrangement; and the Porte was compelled to allow prince Milosch a chance with other competitors.

The sovereign of Turkey is so far absolute, that there is no political body in the empire that has power to check his will; but he is nevertheless compelled to rule in conformity with the religious, civil, and political principles of the Koran, and in obedience to the *sunna*, or words of the prophet preserved by tradition, to the decision of the assembly of ulemas, of which the Mufti is head, and to the Kanunnâme (from the Greek *kanon*, rule of conduct), a code of practices observed from the beginning of the empire. The sultan re-

gards himself not only as lineal successor of the Arabian kaliphs, but goes further back to claim a like descent from the Persians of the dynasty of Cyrus the Great. Even Nebuchadnezzar is made by some means an ancestor; and to give a colour to this pretension, the sultan takes the style of 'grand seignior,' a translation of the *Megasbasileus*, or 'great king' of the Dariuses, and is constantly taught by his early instructors that he is immortal, and cannot die, but will, as all his predecessors have done, merely *vanish* from the earth. Hence he is addressed ever on state occasions in the same high-flown style as was the destroyer of the kingdom of Judah—'O king! live for ever!' (See page 425 of the present volume, and vol. i., 646.) The Turkish language is greatly derived from the ancient Greek, the tongue of the nation they supplanted: the population of the empire is reckoned at 7,000,000 in Europe, 12,500,000 in Asia, and 3,000,000 in Africa; the annual revenue of the government at 18,000,000*l.* sterling; the standing army at 70,000; the navy 24 ships of the line, 30 frigates, and 120 war-vessels of an inferior order.

As respects the Moslem faith, the Turks, being strict Sunis, regard with a hatred more inveterate than that they display towards Christians, their brethren of Persia, of the Shiah form. Regarding all Shiites as lost heretics, and enemies of the Islam (see vol. i., 362), they hold them excommunicate, and by no means pray in their mosques for their conversion. Each party, in truth, anathematizes the other from the very pulpit. The Suni followers of the prophet are themselves split into four sects, all, however, 'orthodox;' but the Shiites are divided into many more, the chief of which are the Imaumians, the Khattabians, and the Zeydis. The Imaumians contend that the first point of religious observance is to distinguish who is the true imâm, or head of the Mohammedan church,—the people having no will in the

cessive fatigue. The Chinese sentence commemorative of this sacrifice, characterizes the work itself as 'the annihilation of one generation for the preservation of a thousand'—meaning that millions of Chinese had been subsequently protected by its bulwarks from those terrible invasions of Tartars, against which it was raised. But the Chinese builders must have been put to far harder labour than the Egyptians, if the quantity of matter raised and put together be admitted as a criterion; for, according to good authority, the materials of all the dwelling-houses in Great Britain, allowing them to average on the whole 2000 cubic feet of masonry, would be barely equivalent to the contents of the Chinese wall—which is sufficient, in the mass of materials, to surround the circumference of the earth on two of its great circles, with two walls, each six feet high and two feet thick! The dynasty of Hân (vol. i., 185) supplanted that of Tsin, 202 B. C., and filled one of the most important periods of Chinese history. In its time began the most terrible Tartar incursions; and towards the close of it, 221 A. D. (vol. i., 286), China was divided into three states, called collectively the San-kou-e. The Honân union of the three followed, and passed a Salique law (vol. i., 286), in consequence of the distractions which had arisen from women and eunuchs interfering in affairs of state during the San-kou-e; and the same has been observed in China, to the exclusion of queens-regnant, to this day. In 416 the Honân dynasty became extinct; and China being divided into two kingdoms, Nanking was made the capital of the southern, and Hônan of the northern one. For two centuries after, five successive families rapidly followed each other in a contention for the supreme power; and the salutary rule of hereditary succession being constantly violated by the strongest, the whole history of the interval is a mere record of battles and crimes.

At last the north and south of (modern) China were united, perhaps actually for the first time, into an integral empire, with Honân for a capital, by Kao-tsou, first of the Tâng dynasty, whose original name was Ly-yuen, as at vol. i., 355. The Tang dynasty was overthrown by a rebellious chieftain, 897, and the whole country revolutionized, aspirants to the throne arising in every direction; and this state of anarchy continued until 960, when Tai-tsou, a Manchu Tartar, established the Soong Sung, or Song dynasty (vol. i., 439). The art of printing having been just invented, full 500 years prior to its introduction into Europe, the Song period of rule became a highly literary one; so much so, that military tactics were neglected, and the Tongusan Tartars got possession of a part of northern China, and threatened the whole country. At length the Mongols, who had already conquered India, were called to their aid by the Chinese; and that warlike people, after driving out the invaders, seized the country for themselves, Kublai Khan being their leader (vol. i., 593), 1279. Notwithstanding the great qualities of Kublai, his successors of the Yuen race, as they are styled, through their rapid degeneracy, were driven out in 1367, by Tai-tson (vol. i., 639), a Chinese of mean extraction, who, however, thus founded the native dynasty of Ming, which kept the throne until 1643. In that year the Manchu Tartars again overran the country, and succeeded in deposing Tsang-ching, of the Ming house, and in elevating their leader, Shun-chi, to the throne (vol. ii., 221). This new dynasty took the name of T'atsing, and is still the reigning one in China, with Peking for its capital.

The population of the Chinese empire, according to a recent census by imperial order, was 361,000,000; which, supposing the country to have an area of 1,200,000 square miles, as also stated, gives 300 inhabitants to a square mile, being more than either

England or Holland, over-populated as they both are, can boast.

IRELAND UNDER QUEEN VICTORIA. —The repeal agitation, having for its object to separate the Irish from the British parliament once more, gradually subsided, as the Irish party in the commons declined in influence at the opening of the present reign. But the old agrarian disturbances continued in portions of the Emerald Isle; and in 1842 they rendered Tipperary more savage and barbarous than the slave districts of Africa. 'Mr. Hall,' states a witness on a recent trial, 'was shot on a Wednesday; and on the Sunday before that, I went to Mr. Kent's house, to get my wages. I saw Mr. Kent in the house cleaning a pistol, and I said, Is that the work you're at, sir? Yes, said he, I'm preparing this for Paddy Hall; I think it will do his job. Kent and I had some conversation about the business, and I agreed to lie in wait for Hall that day. I asked him where he would wish to have him shot? and he replied, At the head of the New Road, as he did not wish him to be shot near the house, *for fear of frightening Mrs. Kent*. The same witness (hear it Father Matthew) said he was a *teetotaller*, and observed, 'that he thought it nearly as great a crime to break his pledge, as to murder a man.' The offence for which Mr. Hall's life was taken in this merciless manner was this—that he required his tenants to pledge themselves, in writing, not to cut turf or burn lime on his property *for sale*, though they had full liberty to do both *for their own actual use*. A special commission was very judiciously appointed to try a select number of Tipperary cases; and that course at once, from the certainty of the sentences being carried into execution, put a stop to the wholesale system of murder. The dreadful picture drawn by chief-justice Doherty, in his charge to the jury, was fully borne out by the subsequent trials. 'In that district of the county to which I have directed your attention,' said he, 'there is

hardly a crime of violence and bloodshed that is not perpetrated almost with impunity. No man can choose his own tenants, no man can select his own servants, except at the risk of his own life, and the lives of those whom he may employ as such servants and tenants. The population of the northern part of the country seems to combine in one universal system for the purpose of supporting every species of outrage and intimidation; and through those districts, in a word, assassination stalks in open day, and the murderer hardly seeks for concealment, disguise, or darkness, in the perpetration of his deeds of guilt;—boldly outraging all laws, without any fear as to the consequences. Gentlemen, the finest portion of the county is all over polluted with blood! Neither sex nor age affords any protection; and there is a spirit of abandonment to crime evinced by the perpetrators, which the most barbarous of the heathen nations have ever failed to exhibit.' The repeal clamour having again commenced in the spring of 1843, lord Jocelyn (whose notes on China we have referred to at page 518), in his seat in parliament, drew from sir Robert Peel, the premier, a spirited declaration, which we trust will silence a party ever resolute on tracing the acknowledged miseries of Ireland to any thing but the right source. His lordship said he wished to ask the right honourable baronet whether the government was aware of the fearful excitement that had prevailed for some weeks past in Ireland on the subject of the repeal of the union; whether they had determined to take any steps for the suppression of the agitation; and (if the right honourable gentleman had no objection to make a statement on the subject) whether they were or were not determined to maintain at all risks and hazards the legislative union now existing between the two countries?

'I rejoice, sir,' returned sir Robert, 'that my noble friend has given me an opportunity of making, on the

part of her majesty's government, a public declaration on this most important subject; and I think it necessary, in the first place, to remind the house of what have been the publicly recorded opinions and engagements of the crown, and of both houses of parliament, on this question of the legislative union. In 1834 the sovereign of this country, addressing parliament, made use of the following expressions:—I have learned with feelings of deep regret and just indignation the continuance of attempts to excite the people of Ireland to demand a repeal of the legislative union. This bond of our national strength and safety I have already declared it my fixed and unalterable resolution, under the blessing of Divine Providence, to maintain inviolate by all the means in my power. In support of this determination I cannot doubt the zealous and effectual co-operation of my parliament and my people. These were the words of the sovereign of this country in 1834. They were responded to by the parliament,—by both houses of parliament presenting an address to the crown embodying the same sentiments and the same engagements, approaching the crown, and recording their fixed determination to maintain unimpaired and undisturbed the legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland, which, they said, we consider to be essential to the strength and stability of the empire, to the continuance of the connexion between the two countries, and to the peace and security and happiness of all classes of your majesty's subjects. Sir (said the right honourable baronet amid reiterated cheers) I am, on the part of her majesty, empowered to repeat the sentiments enunciated by king William; and I have not a doubt but that the present houses of parliament are fully prepared to fulfil the solemn engagement into which their predecessors entered. Sir, I have to state, for the information of my noble friend and of the

house, that her majesty's government, both in England and in Ireland, are fully alive to the evils arising from this agitation; and I can assure him that there is no influence, no power, no authority which the law gives to the government, which shall not be used to maintain that union, the repeal of which would not only be the repeal of an act of parliament, but a dismemberment of this great empire. Of this I am confident, that the executive government loses nothing in moral and legal strength by confiding as long as possible in the ordinary powers which the law and the constitution give them. I am unwilling, without urgent necessity, to disparage the ordinary law by asking for increased enactments; but I do not hesitate to say, that if necessity should arise, her majesty's government will at once apply to parliament for those additional and effectual powers, which will enable them to avert the mighty evils which must accrue, not only to England but to Ireland, from any attempt to dissolve the existing union. I here subscribe to and repeat the declarations made in this place on a former occasion by lord Althorp,—that, deprecating all war, and especially deprecating civil war, there is nevertheless no alternative which I should not consider preferable to the dismemberment of this great empire. But I hope, sir, that our forbearance will not be misconstrued: I trust we shall only obtain additional strength by deferring our call for new powers until more urgent necessity shall arise; and meanwhile I hope I have given proof that we shall not fail to ask for those powers, if it shall be found necessary to demand them in order to fulfil the desire expressed by parliament in the year 1834. Sir, I have only further to thank the noble lord for the opportunity he has afforded me of making this public declaration on the part of her majesty's advisers.

Again let us repeat our hope that the great landowners of Ireland will reside a due portion of the year on

their estates, and thus become so many centres of civilization and comfort to their starving peasantry—starving, and consequently rebellious, because of the grinding system of ‘middle men,’ who have no interest but to get the utmost possible amount of labour out of the working population for the least possible amount of pay. This is a leading, not a driving age: let then all true Irishmen, who draw large incomes from their suffering country to spend them among strangers, be *led*, as they must not be *driven*, to see the true cause of Ireland’s distresses, and sorrows, and, without delay, to relieve them. Considerable emigration has taken place within the last few years of Irish families, without relieving the pressure; and were half the population to depart, matters, under the middle men system, would be still the same. The

following is the number of emigrants who left the United Kingdom in 1842:—From England, 74,683; from Scotland, 13,108; from Ireland, 40,553—total 128,344. The parts of the world to which they went were—United States, 63,852; Texas, Central America, and Buenos Ayres, 363; Canada, 41,375; New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward’s island, 12,748; West Indies, 813; Cape of Good Hope, 587; Western Africa, Mauritius, and Falkland isles, 72; Sydney, 1450; Port Philip, 864; Van Diemen’s Land, 2448; South Australia, 145; West Australia, 563; New Zealand, 3064—total 128,344. Four-fifths of the Irish emigrants went to the British North American colonies; the Scots went mostly to Canada and Nova Scotia; and five-sevenths of the English went to the United States.

NINETEENTH CENTURY OF THE CHURCH.—COMMENCING 1801.

THIS possibly most eventful century of the Church Catholic, since her first protection by the Roman emperors, opened with the scene of the Romish branch lying prostrate—not even sitting—in sackcloth and ashes. The pope, first a puppet, then became a prisoner in the hands of the French ruler; and proud Rome, undistinguished from the other states of Italy, was levelled down into a province of the Gallic republic. So, on the other hand, had Gaul once and long figured as a province of the Roman commonwealth. The church of France herself was extinct; and the fiat of the arbiter of European affairs at length went forth, and declared the pontifical power at an end for ever.

In England, the aspect of ecclesiastical matters was sufficiently remarkable; and that dismemberment which external violence had yet failed of effecting, internal division was rapidly producing. By the quick operation of the principles which had developed themselves towards the

close of the preceding century, the parties in the establishment (alas! that there are parties) were no longer recognised as orthodox and latitudinarian, but as maintainers and repudiators of the apostolical succession. The former, or high-church portion, contended for the sanctity and gifts of the priestly office, as conferred in the rite of ordination; and advocated an unflinching obedience to the mandates of the Church. The latter, or low-church portion (now fully leagued with dissenters of every denomination, but especially with the Calvinistic methodists), denied the power of absolution, and other spiritual gifts of the sacerdotal office; and an especial cavilling began among them regarding the authority of ‘the common-prayer book.’ The binding nature of the rubrical directions therein contained, came to be questioned; and nothing being acknowledged as the voice of the Church, which was not to be found literally and distinctly expressed and directed in the Scriptures, a Zuinglian system of

ecclesiastical rule was attempted to be set up. The high-church partisans (in holy orders) were at the same time denounced by their opponents as wholly secular, lovers of pomp, and seekers after preferment; and, to make the distinction in the outward observances and habits of the two sections more palpable, the low-church portion (also in holy orders) professed their adherence to the principles of a more austere and holy life, and, to convince the world of the fact, designated themselves, somewhat presumptuously, 'evangelical (or gospel) preachers.' The methodists, the chief allies of the latter, now combined with them to make a fierce attack upon the common and innocent amusements of lay-life. To dance, to cultivate any other music than psalmody, to play at cards, draughts, chess, or any other game of chance, however moderately and for mere recreation practised, were but so many snares and devices of Satan to enslave souls; the 'foolishness of preaching' was, at the same time, both in church and conventicle, set far above the liturgy of prayer; and that 'praying is the end and design of preaching' was shown to be a fallacy, by the hurried and irreverent manner in which divine service was commonly read in the churches of evangelical preachers, in order that the utmost time might be gained for the oratorical display of the pulpit. From the pulpit in such churches emanated all that was opposed to that religious reserve inculcated of old by the Church, as imperatively necessary to protect things holy from desecration: all was irreverence, recklessness, carelessness, in the mode of handling divine subjects,—and were the hearer ever so impenitent, were he even a scoffer in heart while hearing (for pastors had long ceased to inquire into or care about the consciences of their flock—that would be too like the old auricular confession—mere popery), still was the good seed thrown with unsparing liberality on even that stony soil,

only to be speedily scorched up by the sun of worldliness.

So serious a charge of outraging the ancient decency of public worship to serve fanatical purposes, or at least to carry out designs not authorized by the Church, does not apply to every divine of our church who thought fit to swell the 'evangelical' ranks. There were many sincere men, who, lamenting the apathy evinced by a large majority of their brethren of the high-church party (an apathy much induced by the false zeal of their opponents), cared not by what means new blood were instilled into the languid veins of the Establishment, so that it *were* instilled. The apathy here alluded to was exhibited in the gradual relaxation by the orthodox section of that wholesome system of discipline which the English divines of the seventeenth century had introduced from the old church, and had admirably kept alive by their own splendid example. Fasting at the appointed times had wholly fallen into desuetude; Lent had become as secular a period as any other of the year; the blessed Eucharist was administered rarely, and, what was worse, had come to be regarded as a mere commemorative ceremony; Baptism had, in like manner, settled down into a mere symbol of the faith; the Communion of Saints was utterly disbelieved, and those who had cultivated mystical devotion, and had experienced the ineffable consolations arising from 'God's visit to the soul' even while shrouded in the body, from à-Kempis to bishop Horne downwards, were regarded as poor mistaken 'religionists'—since 'that God had ever visited his saints on earth' was denied; the Church Catechism, from a silly fear of the ridicule of dissenters, who set themselves violently against the pure doctrines of the Church Catholic therein maintained, was either wholly disused, or the parochial children were taught it only in their schools, not in the congregation of God's house; self-denial,

as a daily and hourly exercise, was put aside as vanity, or as a needless display of puritanical austerity; religion sat easy upon every one; while in the congregation, the clerical high-churchman at length imitated the evangelical by hurrying through the liturgy, not certainly to preach the lengthened and often pharisaical as well as empty discourse of the other party, but a sermon, moral and declamatory, dry and sententious, any thing but Christian; and when in private society, the same orthodox person would too often mingle at the card-table, in the dance, even among the spectators of the theatre—however to his own heart in purity and without guile, yet to the manifest offence and scandal of the weaker brethren, contrary to the apostolical injunction.

In bold contrast to this apathy and indiscretion stood forth the zealous and puritanical bearing of the evangelical clergy; and if lay churchmen were staggered at the want of unction of the one party, and frightened at the fanaticism and rousing denunciations of eternal wrath emanating from the other, they too often sought rest by secession, and registered themselves amid sectarians. Among those who first hailed the mingling of churchmen with dissenters as a thing of good, was Dr. Stonhouse, of Bath, in himself a most estimable man. He was the adviser of the afterwards celebrated Mrs. Hannah More, who, with her friend, the amiable Mr. Wilberforce, adopted similar sentiments. Through Mrs. More, bishop Porteus caught the flame. The good bishop Jebb had nearly fallen into the same laxity of sentiment; but though he kept the friendship of all the parties named, he contrived to maintain opinions favourable to orthodoxy. The latter prelate, with his usual penetration, saw, that if the church of England, in the crisis he saw awaiting her, amalgamated with any other body of Christians, it must be with one already in catholicity; and though he

perceived an union with the Romanists to be impossible under existing circumstances, he made it his study to conciliate by every method his 'catholic' brethren in Ireland, and lived among them, until his last illness, in bonds of the strictest amity. He preferred this course to a junction with any schismatics whatever.

One of the grievous evils resulting from the anti-pale league was the indiscriminate resort of churchman and sectary to church and conventicle. Mr. Rowland Hill (page 350) must be considered the inventor of this singular method of producing Christian good-fellowship; and he became thus the enlister of an army, whose members were indeed soldiers, but belonged to no distinctive regiments. The claim on their affections of both the ancient nished resort of their fathers, and the modern meeting-house, was nearly equal; and, to square the matter, it came to be a practice (and which still extensively obtains) to join alternately on the sabbath-day in the service of either. One would suppose that the little estimation in which such half-dealing is necessarily and notoriously held both by church and conventicle ministers, would deter reflecting persons from so playing Naaman in Christian days. He who will desire to seem alike the friend of two contending generals, must sit down content with being regarded as the enemy of both; and it will be little consolation to him to recollect that he is a soldier without a leader. Even the otherwise well-ordered Mrs. More went to communicate in a conventicle; such practice being regarded by her *clique* as the most distinguished proof of Christian charity. Out of the same want of discrimination arose a morbid philanthropy, which, while it hurried on the abolition of negro slavery, at the risk of the fortunes and even lives of the West India planters, legislated with the same ardour in behalf of chimney-sweep emancipation, in defiance of the wishes of the sooty tribe themselves, and laboured to abolish that

necessary discipline in the British army,—flogging for moral offences. Nay, it was even seriously projected to commence a crusade with the Moslem nations once more, simply with a view to enforce a greater respect for the women of the harems, and a removal of the restraints imposed by the Islam. Oriental concubinage was of course to be suppressed. It is astonishing how feeling the English people had become on a sudden for the sorrows and deficiencies of other nations—how utterly regardless of the real and all-craving wants of their own. The severities practised towards the factory children in our manufacturing districts,—the actual cruelties exercised on women and children in the English mines, by the imposition on them of labours wholly beyond their physical powers,—and the positive slavery of the mantua-makers' apprentices in London itself,—compelled as the last-named class are to work fifteen hours a day, sometimes even to omit going to rest for three nights together, and, in order to keep sleep at bay, made to stand while they work—the sabbath-day itself (especially in times of fashionable demand, whether for court-dresses, or for masquerade or mourning apparel) affording them no release from toil—all home burdens, heavier and more intolerable far than the foreign ones of the colonial negro and the Turkish concubine, were entirely passed over; while whole districts of the British islands were (and alas! still are) without spiritual or even moral teachers of any description—left to worse than Chinese heathenism—a mass of English born people living in England, without one ray of Christian light, and without one spark of moral virtue. And thousands sterling annually being collected and sent abroad all this time, to convert at least *morally*-advanced nations, such for instance as the Hindüs, to that faith which we cared not whether some of our own fellow-countrymen had ever heard of.

Bible-societies were next establish-

ed by the anti-pale leaguers, in order to disseminate the Holy Scriptures to the utmost possible extent, as if on the principle, that to give a man a Bible was to bestow on him a religion; and a quarrel hence arose between the church conservative and destructive parties, which, for the first time, authoritatively marked the distinction to the general public between high and low church tenets. While the conservative class contended for the junction of the established book of common-prayer with the Bible, their opponents violently declared for the 'Bible, and nothing but the Bible.' Convinced of the injury which must result to the church of England by the adoption of such a course as the latter, Dr. Herbert Marsh, Mr. Prebendary Norris, and others, boldly published against it, and were in consequence assailed with all the virulence and contumely they must have anticipated. The Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, the secular bulwark of the church, hereupon put its citadel in a state of defence; and it soon had to conflict with that attempt to level all creeds, 'the Lancaster system' of education, which, taking Pope's deistical prayer for its motto—

Father of all, in ev'ry age,
In ev'ry clime ador'd—
By saint, by savage, or by sage—
Jehovah—Jove—or Lord!

purposed the bringing up of children with no other religion than that of nature. To meet the evil 'the national system' was adopted; or, in other words, day-schools were established in every parish where practicable, for instructing youth of both sexes in the principles of Christianity as taught by the Church Catholic. This latter was carried into effect on the plan of the rev. Dr. Bell, originally begun by that gentleman at Madras. The system was soon generally adopted, the parliament seconded the Society's efforts, and there are now few parishes in England which have not their national school.

But if the church of England was thus harassed, she had long enjoyed the protection of a state ministry, which professed to uphold her, and which did certainly, in the main, support her cause, and further her views, and guard her privileges. King George III., during his long rule, had trusted to tory counsellors, being convinced of the necessity of upholding ancient institutions, and considering it his first duty to maintain the rights of that branch of the Church Catholic of which he was the earthly head. His successor, George IV., pursued a like line of policy; but when William IV. had succeeded, the face of ecclesiastical affairs was changed. That well-intentioned monarch began with his brother's tory administration: but he had been from his early youth attached to the whigs; and when his conservative advisers lost the favour of the multitude by firmly, and perhaps injudiciously, declaring against *any* reform in the representation of the country, a liberal cabinet was at once formed, which, during a subsequent sway of ten years, shook all the venerable fabrics of antiquity in the kingdom to their foundations. The church was one of the earliest, as she was the *chief* object of spoliation; and,—unprotected as she had now become—her pale gone—her natural defenders, some spiritless in her behalf, others sunk deep into Arian notions, and a large portion actually in league with enemies, whose day and night exertions were to undermine and lower her to the dust,—she was on the point of sinking, when aid of no slight or ordinary description arrived to avert the catastrophe.

And this was the forlorn state of the Anglo-Catholic church, when such timely assistance was proffered. To attempts to force the universities (founded as their respective societies exclusively were for the benefit of church members) to receive and instruct persons of all creeds, and to compel the clergy to resign their superintendence of the national edu-

cation system to lay hands, or to those of schismatical preachers, had succeeded the 'voluntary' system. This was a scheme set on foot in 1830 by the dissenters, and responded to by a large body of professing churchmen, to make the support of the church an optional thing. Even legislative enactments were tried to be obtained, to excuse every one who chose to style himself baptist, methodist, independent, or quaker, from contributing to the maintenance of the edifice of the church of his parish; and a manifest temptation was thus offered to the careless members of the establishment to quit her pale. In numerous districts in and around the metropolis, it became consequently difficult for the clergy to obtain ringers for their belfries, coals for their vestry-grates, or even servants to dust and open the church pews. The clocks of the sacred edifices were let go down, and organists' salaries were wholly stopped. These, although minor grievances, were the natural precursors of more serious doings; and it was only when it was discovered that measures were taking in high quarters to meddle with *doctrines*, that a small band of determined champions appeared, armed to the teeth, and ready to go to martyrdom for the church's rescue.

During the first three years of lord Grey's administration, there had either been passed, or were known to be in contemplation, some legislative measures highly oppressive to the establishment. To these were added the persecutions and privations of the parochial clergy in Ireland, consequent on the refusal to pay tithes; the increasing power of protestant dissent in England, through the lenity and laxity of church rulers; and the disposition manifested by both lax laymen and laxer clergymen to call for important alterations in the authorized common-prayer book. Of this last fact, a letter published by the Hon. Rev. Arthur Perceval, in the Irish Ecclesiastical Gazette, furnishes conclu-

sive evidence. Under the influence of these feelings, and no prelate of the church appearing as her champion, Mr. Perceval himself, and several other divines, met, in the summer of 1833, at the house of the late Rev. Hugh James Rose, then domestic chaplain to the archbishop of Canterbury; and, after calmly discussing the state and prospects of the church, they came to the agreement, that the only way of counteracting the danger by which she seemed menaced, was to recal the minds of churchmen to the distinctive principles of the liturgy, canons, and articles—from which they considered there had been a very general departure. They united in regarding these distinctive principles as marking out the pure doctrine of the church of England, free alike from all modern innovations, popish and protestant; and identifying such doctrine with the primitive faith of the Universal Church, they determined diligently to recommend and teach it. They believed that, by so doing, they were only discharging (with the zeal necessary in difficult times) an obligation imposed on them by their ordination vows. Among those who thus resolved to begin a task scarcely less Herculean for the church of England than that which the Reformation itself undertook, and which has scarcely in three centuries been perfected, were some divines, known in the university of Oxford for their deep theological researches, and their thorough acquaintance with the principles and history of the Church Catholic from its foundation. They were acknowledged to be men completely read in the Fathers, and conversant with every minute change which had taken place in church government, ceremonies, &c., during the long period of the Church's existence—eighteen centuries. As such, their knowledge concerning the work to be undertaken was exactly coincident with their zealous ability to undertake it. These are the men who, from one of the most diligent

of them being the estimable Dr. Pusey, canon of Christ-church (himself the son of a nobleman, see page 333, celebrated for his sound church principles, and for his most benevolent and munificent disposition), have been nicknamed *PUSEYITES* by the anti-pale leaguers; and 'Puseyism,' having thus become a polemical term, implying '*the Cause of the Church*,' it has been as fiercely denounced as every thing tending to uphold the branch established in this country is usually denounced by its enemies. And here it should be borne in mind that the sin of calling the doctrines of the church of Christ by men's names, rests not with those who hold the doctrines, but with those who go out of the way to assign them carnal designations.

Upon their original resolution, meanwhile, the catholicity-party acted; and, in carrying it out, they have certainly met with extraordinary success. One of their most powerful engines was a periodical publication, commenced 1833, entitled '*Tracts for the Times*,' to which Dr. Pusey, Mr. Newman, Mr. Keble, and Mr. Williams were the leading contributors; and no unprejudiced theologian, no one well read in divinity, can say that these documents are not perfectly in accordance with the best principles of the Reformation. They certainly attempt to bring up the church of England to that high standard she had at length reached in the seventeenth century; they contend that the authority of the Church and of tradition must be taken *along with* the Scriptures; they propose the close study of the Fathers, especially of the apostolical portion of them, whose mention of established ecclesiastical customs may be taken as commands,—inasmuch as they themselves must have obeyed the customs as commands, and have been actually contemporaries, or nearly such, with the commanders—that is, *the apostles*. Any wish expressed in these Tracts to unite with the Romanists, as Christians, not as a church,

is a most holy one, and ought to be that of us all. We manifestly abandoned their church, in order to purify a house by the proper standard for ourselves : and having so done, we would now invite them to come and compare it with their own, that they might haply see the rust and defilement the latter had in a period of ages accumulated, and, by removing it, become like ourselves. Thus, and thus alone, can the direct catholicity and unity of Christ's Church be restored. It was this view of the matter which induced the authors of the Tracts to publish Mr. Froude's 'Remains' (see *Froude*). But this pious aspiration after church-unity has been maliciously interpreted by the enemies of the Oxford divines into a desire to restore the authority of the pope in England ; and every proposal to bring back into use valuable primitive practices, which had either been accidentally omitted at the Reformation, or purposely neglected to please the violent puritanical party of the period, has been denounced as a plain sighing after the abomination of 'her of the seven hills.' As the triumphant sign of the cross in Baptism has so singularly escaped the besom of the reformers, and is prized too much by all sincere Christians to be now allowed to fall into desuetude, in like manner might other ancient symbols of the faith, much to the advancement of vital religion, be used by us ; though perhaps, to avoid shocking the prejudices of those who have not the means of entering deeply into the question of their value, they should be *gradually* restored. We fully agree with the writers of the Tracts, that 'the Christian religion has no forms without substance, no externals without meaning. Gorgeous chalices presume the intrinsic preciousness of the consecrated element which they inclose ; white robes imply a holy priesthood ; altars a propitiatory sacrifice ; crosses betoken the severity of the Christian life, and the all-sufficiency of the One Atonement ; lights symbolize the illustrious pre-

sence of Christ in the world ; and so in other instances.' As bishop Jewel alleged, were there no substantial representations of which those symbols were the types, they would be 'mere theatric displays,' or, as the Tracts say, 'of the very essence of formalism ;' but happily that is not so. God Himself thought it not derogatory from his majesty to dictate to the Jewish priesthood on minute matters of dress and ornament, and ceremony, knowing what is in the human heart, and how sensibly it is impressed by such outward appearances ; and human nature, after a lapse of more than 3000 years, is still alive to similar influences. Though the bark be not the tree, it is greatly necessary to its life—essentially so to its *vigorous* existence. Again, the life sought apart from the form, will be but imperfectly attained.

But it is affirmed that the attempt to restore such primitive customs of the Church, proves the popish intentions of the Tractarians. Now we presume all 'popish intention' goes to the upholding of papal authority, and, in fact, means to declare the Romanist form of faith the right one. If the 'Pusey' party had that object in view, we surely should find the Roman catholics laud the Oxford movement. But such is far from the fact. The heads of the Romish church know well the ground upon which the 'Puseyites' have re-entered. The English church had gradually declined in catholicity for more than a century, and had thus ceased almost to be on the level of an antagonist establishment with that of Rome. But a resumption of those principles which were dominant in her in the seventeenth century, would soon display her the distinctive champion, as heretofore, of no new, but of a purified and (as far as can be traced through the Fathers) the primitive form of the faith ; and, if the church of Rome should be resolved on cleaving to her supererogatory dogmas, a scion of her, so cleansed and strengthened, must, sooner or later, become once more her very formidable adversary

Hence numerous Romanist polemical writers have joined the English dissenters and evangelical clergy in anathematizing the Tracts and their authors; and the conclusion drawn from the 'delenda est Carthago' of one of the latter—'popery must be destroyed—it cannot be reformed!'—is thus expressed by a catholic of eminence: 'Unless Mr. Newman be capable of telling the most dreadful untruths, he contemplates no step whatever, either by correspondence or other means, which may bring about an union with Rome. He declares most solemnly that it is his wish to arrest the progress of catholicism (the writer meaning 'Roman'),—not to promote it.' The same antagonist says, 'I impeach Dr. Pusey and his friends of a deadly hatred of our religion—I impeach them of an intemperance against it, which no age has yet been witness to.' But the Tracts furnish abundant proof of the condemnation by the 'Puseyites' of all the unscriptural doctrines of Rome; and Tract 38 may be referred to especially to substantiate the assertion.

That which we have already written will, we trust, give at least a faint sketch of the pious aims of the Oxford divines, and show what are *not*, as has been alleged, their objects. We will now briefly allude to the character of the so assailed Tracts, to that of their authors, to the reception both Tracts and authors have met from the world, and, lastly, to the good that has accrued, and is yet likely to accrue, from publications that have once more forced a salutary research into the writings of the Fathers, and caused an anxious inquiry into the habits and practices of the primitive and (so to speak) apostolical Christians. And here we must affirm that Puseyism, as already described, is nothing new, and that the Puseyites are not a *sect*: the latter being best designated as a party of conscientious men, who simply labour to retrace the paths of primitive Christianity, themselves upholding no novelties whatever.

Of the Tracts it may be averred,

that they comprise, even as far as they have gone (having ceased at the personal request of an estimable prelate), a whole body of divinity; that they are indited in a style to attract, by its simplicity, and by the absence of all meretricious ornament; that the solid learning contained in them is so offered to the diligent reader, that he finds himself informed without labour—having at once before him, without the trouble of reference, every necessary authority, every requisite quotation. If theology has been a neglected study of late, it may now happily be otherwise, and that, be it said, through the impulse of the Tracts; their teaching being, not of the superficial school of the close of the late, and of the first thirty years of the present century, but of the profound one of the seventeenth, and this urged with a generous feeling towards those who differ from the writers in opinion, that has its source in genuine Christian charity. It may be declared, in conclusion, that none can read the Tracts, whether clerical or lay, and not become more learned, more wise, more wise unto salvation.

Of the authors we can scarcely speak, without seeming to mingle flattery with our most honestly intended and perfectly disinterested praise. All who know any thing of them, whether of their own knowledge or by report, admit them to be men of unsurpassed piety, zealous in inculcating good works, obedience to superiors, devotion, and self-denial; and it must not be forgotten that, though they have had many terrible enemies, terrible as being (the enemies themselves) many of them good men—who, without weighing their opponents, without steadily acquainting themselves with their object, have hastily passed a harsh judgment upon them and their works,—those very enemies have declared their unqualified respect, indirectly some, and directly most, for both their private and their public character. Even a prelate who had, in a charge to his clergy, attacked the Tracts, acknowledged the au-

thors to be 'men possessing a high tone of devotional piety, who, by framing their lives and conversation in the genuine spirit of evangelical holiness, have, by their self-denial, their disinterestedness, and the habitual cultivation of every Christian virtue, entitled themselves to our regard and admiration.' The same bishop, in giving his opinion of those of the clergy in his diocese who have been taught of the Tractarians, says, 'I bear my willing testimony to the exemplary purity of their lives, *their doctrines, and their opinions*. Persons more diligent in every pastoral duty, more charitable towards all who differ from them in sentiment, or more fraught with all the virtues which are the genuine fruits of Christ's holy religion, *I never knew*. It is impossible to suspect such men of an inclination to leave worshipping the Lord in the beauty of holiness, or of a desire to encourage and tolerate a system in which human inventions and abuses stand side by side with evangelical truth.'

Next, as to the reception both the Tracts and their authors have met from the world. From a large portion of the brethren of the authors, beyond even those of the evangelical section, the Tracts have encountered strenuous opposition. Some of the bishops, especially of those supporting evangelical opinions, have registered their hostility in no very measured terms. One prelate has even gone so far as to attribute the doctrines of the Tracts to the agency of Satan, and declares he has discerned them to be that arch-enemy's own sown 'tares, springing up amidst the wheat.' On the other hand, a large portion of the high church, and the great bulk of the junior clergy, seem to have been impressed with a belief that 'Puseyism' is the cause of the Church, and have exerted themselves to give it every support. Indeed the indiscreet zeal of some of the latter, has been a principal cause of the stand that has been made by older and graver men against the Oxford-reform.

With the ardour of inexperience, the most sudden changes have been occasionally made in external usages and ceremonies; and though it is matter of ecclesiastical history that bishop Andrewes, and the host of sterling divines of the seventeenth century, and the great body of the English clergy down to the Bangorian controversy, practised those forms, still the mass of lay-churchmen of our day have known nothing of the matter, and regard such mutations either as things wholly new and needless, or as glaring popish superstitions. They have never been told, and have still to learn, that the church of England has been running away from her principles for more than a century, and that the so abused 'Puseyism' is only another term for an attempt to bring her back to them. The evangelical clergy, well aware that, of all antipathies connected with religious errors in England, the most popular one is the antipathy to Romanism,—suspicion and hatred of that form having been associated with Englishmen's notions of liberty for two centuries—the very sports of children teaching them, from their tenderest years, to abominate popery—have, from their own dislike of the trammels of church discipline, taken no small pains to foster this fear of a return to the stringent system of Romanism, and to keep up the no-popery cry against the Tractarians. At Oxford, the church-restoration party have met with just that reception which our Lord has assured us his resolute disciples always must expect,—being 'not without honour, save in their own country, and in their own house.' In that university, where originated the movement, a violent opposition has been shown to the Tractarians; insomuch that when Mr. Williams, one of them, stood candidate for the vacant professorship of poetry, 1841, he was, on account of his 'Puseyism,' although allowed on all hands to be highly qualified in point of attainments, declared an unfit person for the office, and was superseded, in a private

election, by Mr. Garbett. The number of votes for Mr. Garbett was 921, and for Mr. Williams, 623; so that the defeat nevertheless manifestly proved the great spread of Tractarian opinions. Puseyism had had, in a word, to contend single-handed against three more or less influential parties in Oxford—the latitudinarians, the so-called ‘evangelicals,’ and what may be styled ‘the establishment party,’ not to mention others, who would scarcely be satisfied at being included in either of the three classes named. The Puseyite strength was again tried in 1842, on an occasion which tended to place the cause in its true light. Dr. Hampden had been forced upon the university of Oxford by the Melbourne administration, in 1836, as regius professor of divinity; but the convocation, after deciding that the doctor’s theological belief was not orthodox, unanimously passed a statute of disability against him. The question was not one of form, or order, or constitution,—but the catholic faith, the creed of the Christian, was actually at peril,—which Dr. Hampden had declared to be a mere matter of human opinion, not essential to Christianity. The professor’s chief supporters were strong enemies of the Puseyites; and when it was supposed that the Tractarian cause had been weakened by its defeat on the poetry question, those supporters ventured upon a measure, which they expected would both relieve Dr. Hampden from his restraints, and crush the Tractarians. Calculating on the support of all the anti-Puseyites, they proposed a repeal of the statute of 1836; but they were disappointed by seeing the Tractarians, who stood foremost in opposition to the repeal, backed by all who were not really low churchmen; so that the disabilities were kept in force by a majority of 334 to 219 in convocation. Just previously to this last conflict, the Tracts had been brought to a close, at the personal request of the bishop of Oxford.

Lastly, we come to speak of the good which the Tractarians have effected. The Oxford movement, then, we may affirm, without a chance of our assertion being denied, has completely succeeded in awakening in the church of England that vital spirit of reaction, the necessity for which, as we have shown, gave occasion to such movement. If the bishops, whose office it certainly was, would not begin, it was open to, and the duty of, any other class of churchmen, clerical or lay, to rouse their slumbering brethren—the enemy of the establishment being at its very threshold, with mining apparatus and axe in hand. We hear no more of a demand for the admission of dissenters into the universities, of proposals to abolish subscription to the articles, or of contemplated changes in the liturgy. In our parishes, our ears catch once more the sound of the bell calling to daily prayer—heretofore but a weekly sound; we see the Eucharist more frequently administered; we notice the baptismal sacrament celebrated again openly, before the congregation; we are witnesses to the restoration of the public catechising of children; we see the *name* of the Saviour duly honoured by the ministering divine, and the altar regarded by him in passing or approaching it, as the place of the Real and Continual Presence; and we find the heartless, declamatory oration of the pulpit, supplanted by the plain and simple sermon, explanatory of our duties as of the church doctrines—the preacher truly preaching not himself, but Christ crucified. The Christian labourer is once more both called on by the ambassador of Christ, to rely upon a Redeemer’s Atonement, and *taught how to follow the steps of His most holy life*. Good works are again enjoined, as the essential fruits of faith; and the Church, the sacraments, fasts, festivals, public worship, are held up as most important objects of regard, because, and *because alone*, of their refer-

ence to Christ, and His adorable sacrifice for us. The Church is declared his body; the sacraments, our means of union with him; fasts, our willingness to deny the world as his servants, and to humble ourselves on account of sin, in order to repentance and amendment of life; festivals, our rejoicing for his grant of grace to his saints, and for his special mercies to his Church; public worship, our preference of praying where he is present, and our acknowledgment of the ordinances of religion, and that the entering into the house of God is a privilege as well as blessing. We do all things in Christ; and though wholly unprofitable servants in our works as works, not in our works through Christ. There is here no room for that solifidian heresy which, as Hammond observes, 'hath occasioned that great scandal in the Church, at which so many myriads have stumbled and fallen irreversibly, by conceiving heaven a reward of true opinions.'

Our imperfect notice of the Oxford movement will serve, we trust, to convince our readers, that it has effected a marked revival in England of the principles of the holy Catholic Church; and it may also tend to inspire a hope that the day is not far distant, when they who go to worship God, will, one and all, worship Him in *unity* and in truth. Although divine service is still ill-attended in our churches, notwithstanding the increased frequency of its ministration, we have no doubt that there will be a gradual return to the primitive habits of our church's best century. We must be patient. As regards the *motives* of the parties who have enlisted themselves against the Tractarians,—the low church and no church, the evangelicals and the radicals,—we beg to observe, that the evangelical party oppose the Puseyites, because the latter venerate old forms in ecclesiastical matters; because they discountenance, *extemporaneous* preaching, the utterance of addresses to the Deity according to

the fancies of the moment, and in the language which various sorts of education may suggest; and because they have taken away that authority and guidance in the things of religion, which certain eloquent and self-confident men had of late years arrogated to themselves and exercised, and have restored it to the rightful owner—the Church. The latitudinarians and radicals (always an allied force) have a political ground for their opposition; inasmuch as the Puseyites struggle to maintain those same ancient institutions, which themselves are daily and hourly employed in undermining and pulling down. For our own part, we trust, and humbly think, that the restoration of Anglo-catholicism will *eventually* bind together all the parties in our church, and restore to her pale many sects that can even now give no sound reason for their schism and separation from her; and we cannot help exclaiming with the late amiable bishop Burgess, 'What a different front should we present, as a church, to our opponents, were it not for internal divisions among ourselves! Minor differences of opinion among good men, upon what may be termed 'open' questions, ought not to separate them from each other, or to provoke party feeling; but division makes us like a rope of sand!' We are also strongly inclined to believe that, when the principles of the Oxford divines come to be understood, through a close examination, and a comparison of them with the opinions held by bishops Andrewes and Bull, and by those admirable men Hooker and Jackson, and the other sterling divines of the seventeenth century, the real founders of Anglo-catholicity, their present opponents will see and acknowledge that they have been passing censure upon what they have *mistaken* for the Puseyite doctrines, and not upon the doctrines themselves.

As respects church principles in the two universities, Oxford has long been considered as supporting high-

church, and Cambridge low-church opinions. From the time of Cromwell there has attached this peculiarity, more or less, to either great academy. But tenets yet more closely approaching those of dissent were implanted in Cambridge in comparatively recent times, through the preaching of the celebrated baptist minister, Mr. Hall; whose extraordinary eloquence procured him, for years, more hearers among gownsmen, than among his legitimate followers. The subsequent teaching in the same university, of Mr. Simeon, a calvinistic churchman, tended still further to foster low-church notions at Cambridge. The Tractarian doctrines and views, or, in plain and less exceptionable terms, 'old church-of-England opinions,' have, notwithstanding all this, spread to a considerable extent even in Cambridge.

The abolition of the penal statutes which had so long galled the British members of the Romish church, took place 1829, as shown at page 292; and the substance of the bill which afforded such relief will be found at page 586. An ecclesiastical commission was appointed in 1835, during the brief administration of sir Robert Peel, to inquire into the incomes of English benefices, &c., in consequence of the inadequate accommodation in churches for the increased population; and it was finally determined that benefices of small amount should be augmented, churches be enlarged, and new churches and chapels be built, by appropriating the funds of certain of the prebendal stalls,—thus abstracting from cathedral property to the amount of 300,000*l.* a year. Ripon was created a diocese, out of that of York; and it was further resolved, 1838, that the sees of Bangor and St. Asaph be united, on the next vacancy in either. On that event occurring, the see of Manchester is to be created, comprising the county of Lancaster, now in the diocese of Chester. Certain honorary dignities, such as prebends without stipend,

were also appointed to be awarded to the clergy, probably to be considered as stepping-stones to more substantial advancement.

On the continent, when the successes of Napoleon had given time to the French people to reflect upon the destruction which the Great Revolution had brought upon every institution calculated to render a country happy in itself and respectable in the eyes of other nations, a general desire arose among them for the restoration of the Gallic church. To this wish Napoleon, not from any regard for religion, but, as he declared, 'because he saw that, somehow or other (*d'une façon ou d'autre*), people who have a religion make better subjects than those who have none,' responded by making an application to pope Pius VII., then his prisoner, 1813; but had it not been for the firmness with which that father contended for the basis of a Concordat (page 89), there would have been no recognised branch of the Church Catholic restored in France. A sect of some new name would have arisen, professing in the main Arian notions, and only to be in time superseded by some yet more deistical neology. On the fall of Napoleon, the papal power itself was restored, 1814. In Prussia, the heresy of Rationalism still exists, though beaten out of other German states; but the present monarch of that state is labouring (see page 597) to effect its suppression even there, by the singular project of uniting catholics and protestants in a confederacy against it. Meanwhile 'the *evangelical* church of Prussia,' comprehending the protestant portion of king Frederick William's subjects, boasts itself, though without bishops, to be the 'mother of all western protestant churches;' and with its half Lutheran, half Calvinist, Augsburg confession of faith, it curiously enough essays to take our catholic branch under its wing. The establishment of an English bishop at Jerusalem, 1842, is alluded to in its proper

place, page 537 ; and we fervently hope that the only two legitimate objects of that measure, the conversion of the Syrian Jews, and an union with the orthodox Eastern church, may be, sooner or later, accomplished. In France, under the queen of Louis Philippe, religion has once more begun to flourish, and the sabbath-day to be more than ever before regarded. Even in Rome and the papal states, no theatrical representations are now allowed on the day of rest. In the Kirk of Scotland, that separation of the non-intrusion party from their more moderate brethren, which the proceedings alluded to at page 418 threatened, occurred on occasion of the meeting of the General Assembly at Edinburgh, in May, 1843. Dr. Candlish, one of the chief non-intrusionists, had conceived it probable (in an address previously delivered at the National Scottish church in London), that the whole body of the Assembly would refuse in future all connexion with the state ; but, when the meeting took place, only himself and the others of his party, at the head of which was Dr. Chandler, seceded—to the amount of between 400 and 500 ministers, together with their office-bearers, elders, and communicants. Professing that they maintained, notwithstanding this singular schism, the same doctrinal tenets as their moderate brethren, they commenced founding, by the voluntary system of subscription, ‘the free church of Scotland,’ in opposition to the portion *enslaved* by its ancient love for government protection. ‘We protest,’ concluded the moderator, Dr. Welsh, ‘that, in the circumstances in which we are placed, it is and shall be lawful for us to withdraw to a separate place of meeting, for the purpose of taking steps for ourselves and all who adhere to us—maintaining with us the confession of faith and standards of the church of Scotland, as heretofore understood—for separating in an orderly way from the establishment ; and thereupon adopting such

measures as may be competent to us, in humble dependence on God’s grace, and the aid of the Holy Spirit, for the advancement of his glory, the extension of the gospel of our Lord and Saviour, and the administration of the affairs of Christ’s house, according to his holy word ; and we do now withdraw accordingly, humbly and solemnly acknowledging the hand of the Lord in the things which have come upon us, because of our manifold sins, and the sins of this church and nation ; but, at the same time, with an assured conviction, that we are not responsible for any consequences that may follow from this our enforced separation from an establishment which we loved and prized—through interference with conscience, the dishonour done to Christ’s crown, and the rejection of his sole and supreme authority as king in his Church.’ The Presbyterian forms have, from the beginning, in common with communities opposed to catholicity, repudiated *unity* as a first principle, and therefore the present schism is not remarkable. Where private judgment is the law, there is no limit to divisions. It is, however, to be lamented that such truly estimable and pious men as Drs. Chandler, Candlish, and the other leading seceders, who (as the first-named has declared since the secession) seek not the praise of the disobedient, or of those opposed to laws, or of the mere multitude, should not see themselves in the present matter guided greatly by an impatience of restraints which themselves and other as high-minded men have ever borne, and to bear which meekly would be still the most indubitable mark of the Christian character. It is a great support to virtue to see good minds maintain their patience, and display a power of resignation, while enduring affliction and injuries. They have, without sufficient warrant, since they contend for no difference of tenets, split their church in twain ; and why they should not be answerable for all the consequences of an act so

confessedly their own, we cannot divine. The total number of the ministers of the Kirk is about 1200. At a subsequent meeting of the 'Free Assembly,' a deed of separation from the 'established' portion of the church was agreed to and signed by the protesting ministers and elders; whereby the seceding party renounced all the rights and privileges before held by them, and declared their benefices to be void. The General Assembly, on the other hand, when the recusants had retired, repealed the Veto act, and, in addition to that, the resolution by which the *quoad sacra* ministers were admitted to seats in the Assembly.

As respects the prospects of the Anglo-catholic church, there can be no doubt that if the self-reformation that has been begun be steadily carried on in her, she will ere long be in a state of security. It may be unknown to the general reader that the dioceses are divided into districts, whereby the due exercise of episcopal superintendence is materially facilitated. Each of these districts is under an archdeacon; and the function of the archdeacons is to visit and inspect the clergy and churches of the diocese, and to watch and report the due performance of ecclesiastical duties by the incumbents, and the repair and upholding of the fabric of the sacred edifice by the churchwardens and parishioners. The function of the bishop is not only to act upon these reports, but annually at least to visit, by himself, every parish in his diocese, and to exercise his episcopal authority by a most resolute superintendence, and, where it is required, by an authoritative interposition, through the whole body of his clergy. Diligently administered as these functions, archidiaconal and episcopal, now are—and which they were not some years since—an improved and improving condition of the church of England is, and will continue to be, the necessary result. There are of course still requirements: the

bishop should have full power to remove (a thing he is happily very rarely called upon by necessity to do) an immoral person from a benefice, without being subject to actions at law; and there are many ancient means that ought to be resorted to, (in spite of the ridiculous apprehensions that a return to such obviously beneficial practices and usages implies a return to the errors of the church of Rome,) where none other such advantageous arrangements can be designed and contrived, for enabling the Church to exercise her rightful authority, both for the glory of God, and the happiness of man. Amongst these latter may be named a restoration of the conventual system. If we look through society in England, we mean the great mass of the classes immediately under the nobility, we cannot help noticing the frequent occurrence of one or more of the young women of a family being given up, beyond the rest of their house, to religious thinking. So obvious is this oftentimes, that parents are heard to complain of their daughters' thus seeming tacitly to condemn the authors of their birth of worldly-mindedness: they turn with aversion from the domestic amusements which have been allowed in the family; and nothing but that which is serious, or aiming at the practice of serious duties—such as teaching religious truths, and ministering to the temporal wants of the poor in their neighbourhood,—or even, what is far from a rare occurrence, displaying a desire to join in the public attempts to convert the Jews and other unbelievers,—nothing but a course, so opposed to what is usually deemed connected with feminine propriety and even ability, will afford them pleasure. It must be confessed that this 'serious' tendency (as it is now technically called) in young females of the educated classes, is often found to result from frequent conversations with clergymen of the evangelical school, or even with dissenters: but though those parties certainly foster

such a spirit when they see it arising, or may even occasionally be the cause of its existence, it proves a considerable tendency in the female cultivated mind to receive and act upon religious impressions,—and we have testimony in history of this fact, in all ages and among all nations. The amiable bishop Horne has not been the only eminent modern divine of our church to wish this tendency in the female heart were turned to good account by some systematic guidance of it; Ridley, Latimer, Cranmer, were all friendly to the retention of monasteries; and we conceive that immense good would result to the community in every way, were the conventual system to be now restored. To the young persons themselves, it would be a security against their rushing into fanaticism and dissent; and should they continue 'serious' until old age, we are convinced that a religious woman in her declining years is a more estimable one than the antique devotee of frippery, scandal, and the card-table. The entering into, and the continuance in, such sanctuaries, ought to be optional and voluntary; the parochial (*i. e.* the secular) clergy should be the directors of the religious duties to be performed by the respective superiors, and by the sisters; and the bishops should control all—without the creation of any other order of clergy, even should monasteries be also re-established, with the same objects in view, for men desirous of devoting themselves to active religious duties. Such institutions would not tempt people to leave the world, but would afford them an honourable refuge should they seek retirement from it. That portion of the funds of such convents which had been set apart for aiding the needy, would be distributed to the poor in a precise and regular method, under the eye of the parochial clergyman; and the latter would thus have a purse at command, which his ill-paid benefice could not supply, wherewith to administer to all the pressing wants of the religious poor—poor made religious by the

continual private admonitions and instructions of the secluded sisters and brethren. Thus would relief come to the hungry, the naked, and the ignorant, from the proper and natural source—the Church.

In conclusion, we have a few remarks to make on a recent ecclesiastical arrangement. The Church Missionary Society was founded in 1799, by dissenters chiefly, with a view to send Christian teachers to Africa and other heathen portions of the globe. The establishment of such an institution being considered by churchmen a needless encroachment on the privileges of the 'Society for Propagating the Gospel in foreign parts,' it received no important support at first from members of the establishment. But at length numbers of the evangelical clergy became subscribers to its funds; and, in 1841, to prevent unkind charges as to an unwillingness to aid a work pious in itself, though not carried on in the way which the Church, whose direction in such matters is of vital importance, prescribes, the archbishops of Canterbury and York, and several of the bishops, consented to join the number of its patrons. As there had long been a struggle between the Missionary Society and the bishops for superiority—the former labouring to plant churches *out of catholicity*—it was hoped that such condescension on the part of those whose authority had been originally set at nought, would produce at least a respect for their high office in the Church; but on the contrary, a contempt for the apostolical succession, or, in other words, for episcopal supremacy, is observable in all that is connected with the proceedings of united churchmen and dissenters. In a sermon before the Missionary Society, 1842, the Rev. Hugh Stowell thus mis-states the position and objects of the bishop's office. 'Episcopacy ought not to anticipate, but to follow evangelization. It is not the foundation-stone, but the top-stone of the building. It is when a country or district has been *evangelized*, that the

episcopate (both somewhat irregular terms) comes in to crown and consummate the work. Like the goodly spire which crowns so many of our beautiful *national temples*, the architect did not first bid the spire soar aloft to the skies, but he reserved it to grace and consolidate the finished structure.' The bishop then is a mere ornament of the church, by Mr. Stowell's showing, since we never heard that the spire was an *useful* or *necessary* portion, however beautiful, of the sacred edifice; and it is also clear, by the same allusion (if true), that the Church would be just as much the Church without her prelates. We confess we always considered the first bishops, the apostles, the first founders of churches; and we rejoice that the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel thinks so too, by sending out bishops to *found* the branch churches in our colonies.

SOVEREIGNS.—**ANHALT** DES-SAU—(Duke), 1817, Leopold. **ANHALT BERNBURG**—(Duke), 1834, Alexander. **ANHALT COETHEN**—(Duke), 1830, Henry. **AUSTRIA**—1835, Ferdinand I. **BADEN**—(Grand-duke), 1830, Charles-Leopold-Frederick. **BAVARIA**—1825, Lewis I. **BELGIUM**—1831, Leopold I. **BRAZIL**—1831, Pedro II. **BURMAH**—1837, Tharawadi, usurper. **BRUNSWICK-WOLFENBUTTEL**—(Duke), 1831, William. **CHINA**—1820, Taou-kwang. **DENMARK**—1808, Frederick VI.; 1839, Christiern VIII. **EGYPT**—1810, Mehemet Ali, pacha for the sultan of Turkey; 1840, appointed hereditary pacha. **FRANCE**—1830, Louis-Philippe I. **GREECE**—1833, Otho I. **HANOVER**—1837, ERNEST-AUGUSTUS. **ELECTORAL HESSE**—(Elector), 1821, William II. **GRAND DUCAL HESSE**—(Grand-duke), 1830, Lewis II. **HOHENZOLLERN HECHINGEN**—(Prince), 1838, Frederick. **HOHENZOLLERN SIGMARINGEN**—(Prince), 1831, Antony. **KAUBUL**—

1823, Dost Mohammed, usurper; 1839, Shùjah-ol-Mulk restored; 1841, murder of the Shah, and anarchy. **LIECHTENSTEIN**—(Prince), 1836, Alois. **LIPPE**—(Prince), 1820, Leopold. **LIPPE SCHAUMBURG**—(Prince), 1807, George. **LUCCA**—(Duke), 1824, Charles. **MECKLENBURG SCHWERIN**—(Grand-duke), 1837, Paul Frederick. **MECKLENBURG STRELITZ**—(Grand-duke), 1816, George. **MODENA**—(Duke), restored; 1814, Francis IV. **NASSAU**—(Duke), 1839, Adolphus. **NETHERLANDS**—1815, William I.; 1840, William II. **OLDENBURG**—(Grand-duke), 1829, Augustus. **PERSIA**—1834, Mohammed Mirza. **POPES**—1829, Pius VIII.; 1831, Gregory XVI. **PARMA**—(Duchess), 1814, Maria-Louisa, widow of Napoleon Buonaparte. **PORTUGAL**—1828, Dom Miguel; 1833, Maria II. da Gloria. **PRUSSIA**—1797, Frederick William III.; 1840, Frederick William IV. **REUSS-GREIZ**—(Prince), 1836, Henry XX. **RUSSIA**—1825, Nicolas I. **SARDINIA**—1831, Charles Albert Amadeus. **SAXONY**—1836, Frederick II. **SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA**—(Duke), 1826, Ernest. **SAXE-MEININGEN**—(Duke), 1821, Bernard. **SAXE-ALTEMBERG**—(Duke), 1834, Joseph. **SAXE-WEIMAR**—(Grand-duke), 1828, Charles Frederick. **SCHWARZBURG SONDERHAUSEN**—(Prince), 1835, Gunther. **SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT**—(Prince), 1814, Frederick-Gunther. **TWO SICILIES**—1830, Ferdinand II. **SIKHS**—1798, Runjeet Singh; 1839, Kurruck Singh; 1840, Nao Nchal Singh; 1841, Shere Singh. **SPAIN**—1833, Isabel II. Maria, under the regency of queen Christina, who was supplanted, 1841, by general Espartero, duke of Victory. **SWEDEN AND NORWAY**—1818, Charles XIV., Bernadotte. **TURKEY**—1808, Malimud II.; 1839, Abdul-Medjid. **TUSCANY**—(Grand-duke), 1824, Leopold II. **WALDECK**—(Prince), 1813, George. **WURTTENBERG**—1816, William I.

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